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SOME CONTRIBUTIONS OF CLASSICAL DIALECTIC AND RHETORIC TO A PHILOSOPHY OF DISCUSSION

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I. THE DISCUSSION MOVEMENT

PROFESSOR John Dewey expresses the views of many social thinkers in his essay "Science and Society" [1] when he makes the point that civilization may hope to emerge from social and political confusion when there is developed and applied a methodology for dealing with social problems on the same level of experimental intelligence and reflective thought that has characterized our method of attacking problems in the natural sciences. Since any such social method must of necessity have its focus in those group situations in which social problems are being deliberated and determined, considerable attention has been given to the development of a method of conference or discussion which will implement co-operative group thinking in a way that has been impossible under the older theories of competitive debate and persuasion. Professor Dewey has himself said that "the essential need is the improvement of the methods and conditions of debate, discussion, and persuasion." "That," he concludes, "is *the* problem of the public." [2]

Important forces in the development and extension of the discussion movement have been the Inquiry Group,[3] including such names

[1] Included in *Philosophy and Civilization* (Minton, Balch & Co., 1931.)

[2] John Dewey, *The Public and Its Problems* (Henry Holt and Company, 1927), 208.

[3] For an account of the activities of the Inquiry Group see Eduard C. Lindeman, *Social Education* (New Republic, Inc., 1933), 233 pp.

as Elliott, Follett, Kilpatrick, Lindeman, Overstreet, and Sheffield; adult education agencies; the widespread development of the forum and other types of discussion under the impetus of the forum program of the United States Office of Education;[4] and the accumulation of a considerable body of literature in this field.[5]

II. Relations of Discussion to Classical Doctrine

Despite this interest in the discussion field, our knowledge about the philosophy and method of this type of speaking remains relatively scattered and undeveloped. For this reason and because many of the protagonists of the discussion movement interpret it to be a reaction against classical influences as represented in contemporary theories of argumentation, debate, and persuasion, I am proposing here certain conceptions in classical dialectic and rhetoric which appear to me capable of making significant contributions to a theory of discussion. It is important to notice that we are concerned with a rather special field of classical doctrine. The following statement from Professor Dewey is helpful in defining and delimiting this field:

> All philosophies of the classic type have made a fixed and fundamental distinction between two realms of existence. One of these corresponds to the religious and supernatural world of popular tradition, which in its metaphysical rendering became the world of highest and ultimate reality . . . Over against this absolute and noumenal reality which could be apprehended only by the systematic discipline of philosophy itself stood the ordinary empirical, relatively real, phenomenal world of everyday experience. It was with this world that the practical affairs and utilities of men were connected. It was to this imperfect and perishing world that matter of fact, positivistic science referred. . . . This is the trait which, in my opinion, has affected most deeply the classic notion about the nature of philosophy.[6]

We shall we interested here in what the classical writers had to say about this "ordinary empirical, relatively real, phenomenal world of everyday experience." Eduard C. Lindeman in his *Social Education* says that we can locate pragmatic foundations as far back as Aristotle.[7] Certainly if this is true, and I think that it is, it will

[4] See John W. Studebaker, *The American Way* (McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1935), 206 pp.; also surveys and descriptive bulletins available at the United States Office of Education.

[5] For bibliography on discussion see Lyman S. Judson, "Bibliography of Group Discussion," *The Gavel of Delta Sigma Rho* (November, 1936), XIV, No. 1, 4–10.

[6] John Dewey, *Reconstruction in Philosophy* (Henry Holt and Company, 1920), 22–23.

[7] *Op. cit.*, 190.

profit us in studying discussion to turn our attention to the realm in which the ancients conceived inquiry and deliberation to function. My point is that this "ordinary empirical, relatively real, phenomenal world of everyday experience," which for Aristotle was the realm of probabilities as distinguished from certainties, and the province in which he placed his dialectic and rhetoric, is the field which has potentialities so far as discussion is concerned. I trust that this makes the point, at least by implication, that those who question the application of classical doctrine to pragmatic or experimental techniques, discussion in particular, because they do not find help in the "absolute and noumenal reality" which the ancients treated in their philosophical works *per se*, might well give some attention to the field of classical doctrine which we are here considering.

III. An Interpretation of the Renaissance Reaction Against Aristotelianism

Rhetoric and dialectic had their beginnings in a sophistic tradition which Plato's *Gorgias* has never permitted the world to forget. In the *Phaedrus*, a more mature dialogue of a later date, however, Plato laid the basis for a philosophical development of these same fields which he consistently attacked so bitterly in their sophistic manifestations.[8] But it remained for Aristotle to build on the foundations which Plato laid; and it is his dialectical and rhetorical treatises, more than any others, which have influenced subsequent thought in these fields.[9]

We shall be interested here in the reaction against Aristotelianism which took place in the fourteenth, fifteenth, and sixteenth centuries because in this reaction may be found the roots of the philosophy which underlies the present discussion movement. It is important to observe, however, that there are many important differences between the original doctrine and the medieval scholastic Aristotelianism against which this reaction took place. This is not difficult to understand when it is realized that most of Aristotle's methodological works were not available to the middle ages; this is true both of the

[8] It should be noted perhaps that both the *Gorgias* and the *Phaedrus* deal primarily with rhetoric rather than dialectic. It is true, however, that dialectic, like rhetoric, had its beginnings in a sophistic background. In the case of dialectic, this may be seen in the eristic of Zeno and others.

[9] There are important differences between the dialectic of Plato and that of Aristotle, and certain differences in emphasis so far as rhetorical philosophy is concerned, but they need not concern us here.

Rhetoric and of the principal books of the *Organon*. We now know that the medieval scholars, while devoted to Aristotle in a way that is difficult for modern students to appreciate, had to depend for the most part on secondary sources and reworkings of Aristotle which have been found to be misleading and inaccurate in many cases.

From the standpoint of a philosophy of discussion perhaps the most important point at which Aristotle has been misunderstood is in his conception of the reasoning processes in dialectic and rhetoric on the one hand and scientific or apodeictic demonstration on the other. We have already noted the great dichotomy between the realm of certainty and that of probability which Aristotle observed in common with other classical philosophers. While the logical syllogism was explained in the *Analytics* as the instrument of apodeictic proof, important modifications of the syllogism were developed in the *Topics* and *Rhetoric* designed to adjust the syllogism to the exigencies and requirements of dialectical inquiry and public discussion which were viewed as the principle vehicles of reasoning in the realm of probabilities. The distinction between Aristotle's conception of reasoning in these two realms is so confused and submerged in most of the treatises upon which the middle ages had to depend, and in most subsequent treatments as well, that even today there are those who complain against the applications of the syllogism in reflective thinking and group deliberation without knowledge, apparently, of the adaptations of this concept which Aristotle gives us in the dialectical syllogism and the rhetorical enthymeme.[10]

It should be emphasized, then, that the revolt against scholasticism was a revolt against the Aristotelian tradition *as understood in that day*. This attack began with guarded remonstrances as early as John of Salisbury and Roger Bacon, and was taken up with much greater vigor by Valla, Agricola, Vives, Ramus, Campanella and others in the following centuries. We see the beginnings of scientific method with Galileo and Kepler in the sixteenth century and at about the same time Francis Bacon became the spokesman for this movement. Says Professor Dewey:

> Bacon brought his charge against the Aristotelian method itself. In its rigorous forms it aimed at demonstration and in its milder forms at persuasion. But both demonstration and persuasion aim at conquest of mind rather than of nature. Moreover they both assume that some one is already in

[10] For a more complete discussion of this point see James H. McBurney, "The Place of the Enthymeme in Rhetorical Theory," *Speech Monographs* (October, 1936), III, No. 1, 49–74.

possession of a truth or belief, and that the only problem is to convince some one else, or to teach. In contrast, his new method had an exceedingly slight opinion of the amount of truth already existent, and a lively sense of the extent and importance of truths still to be attained. It would be a logic of discovery, not a logic of argumentation, proof, and persuasion.[11]

I mention these historical commonplaces because they represent the beginnings of a philosophy of discovery or experimentalism which must be included in our purview if we are fully to appreciate the later developments of this philosophy and their relation to discussion on the one hand and the classical doctrine with which we shall be concerned on the other. With the philosophers of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, even among those with definite empirical leanings, "the ancient tradition was still strong enough," says Professor Dewey, "to project itself unconsciously into men's ways of thinking, and to hamper and compromise the expression of the really modern forces and aims." [12] In Bacon, Locke, Campbell and others we find incipient attempts to apply empirical principles in the realm of public discussion, but these consisted largely of attacks on the scholastic logic and rhetoric and did not present anything approaching a fully developed theory.

IV. A Philosophy of Experimentalism

It is to a philosophy of American inception, the pragmatism of Peirce, James, and Dewey, that we must look for the most adequate account of the experimentalism which Bacon envisioned and the philosophy which underlies the present discussion movement. This philosophy may be characterized for our purposes: first, by its reference of all knowledge to experience and the explicit denial of the dualism between the real and transcendental realms of thought, which is maintained by classical philosophy and much of modern philosophy; second, by its view of the universe as dynamic, changing, becoming, rather than static and certain; and third, by its instrumental character or its emphasis on experimental method and thought in process.

The application of these principles to discussion may be seen most simply by examining the experimentalists' analysis of the process of deliberation. Here five steps are commonly distinguished, the designation of the problem, the definition and delimitation of the problem, the suggestion of hypotheses, the deductive amplification of these

[11] John Dewey, *op. cit.*, 28–29.
[12] *Ibid.*, 51.

hypotheses, and the relating back to experience of the suggestion chosen for purposes of verification. It is in this method of inquiry that the principles of experimentalism find their focus and it is this same method of inquiry which functions in the deliberations of a good discussion group.

The discussion technique may be said to be an attempt to procure for group deliberation that co-operative tendency toward consensus which marks inquiry in the sciences. There are important differences, however, between experimentalism in the realm of discussion and in the realm of the sciences. In discussion you are necessarily exploring the minds of the members of the group. The materials which must be combined, synthesized, and integrated here are the opinions, beliefs, thoughts, and emotions of the individual members of the group. It is from these ingredients that the hypotheses must come, and the reasoning through and determination of these hypotheses subject to later verification in action must be accomplished through the give and take of conversation. Discussion properly conceived is a supplement to scientific method. The latter is a method for grappling with nature directly and wresting therefrom the facts which must continually be forthcoming if discussion and deliberation by and large are to escape stagnation and sterility. Discussion, on the other hand, is a methodology for interpreting, extending, and applying the data which science supplies; and by so doing, it not only helps to realize the values of science, but at the same time it indicates new problems for science to attack. Scientific method attempts to establish a consensus on specific matters of fact; discussion attempts to secure a similar consensus in the formulation of what has been called *evaluational judgments of fact*, and in the determination of *generalized conceptions as to what should be done*.[13] Scientific method is thus adapted to the needs and problems with which group deliberation is concerned, and is thereby introduced into the fields in which such deliberation functions.

V. Logical Factors in Discussion

Because of the very nature of discussion, one of the most important problems arising is the development and clarification of the logical principles upon which it proceeds. Granted a co-operative attitude and a genuine desire to seek truth among the participants, what rhetorical form should their individual contributions take, and what

[13] See Columbia Associates in Philosophy, *An Introduction to Reflective Thinking* (Houghton Mifflin, Boston, 1923), Chapter IX.

is the logical analysis of the give and take process through which it is hoped that something creative will emerge?

To answer these questions I think that it is necessary to make a distinction between what I shall call *thought in process* and the *outcome of thought*. Thought in process may be understood as constructive thinking in the typical pattern of the five steps previously mentioned. Rignano has described this process as a series of mental experiments.[14] Concerning the nature and form of the so-called outcome of thought, or what is commonly referred to as demonstration or proof, there are some important differences of opinion which we shall need to notice.[15] Professor Dewey distinguishes two important views as follows:

> There are two kinds of demonstration: that of logical reasoning from premises assumed to possess logical completeness, and that of showing, pointing, coming upon a thing.[16]

The kind of demonstration which is here described as "logical reasoning from premises assumed to possess logical completeness" consists in supplying a series of syllogisms to support a proposition, or otherwise developing its logical implications in such a way that it may be said to be proved or demonstrated in a formal sense. The second method of demonstration, "that of showing, pointing, coming upon a thing," Professor Dewey describes as follows:

> The empirical method points out when and where and how things of a designated description have been arrived at. It places before others a map of the road that has been travelled; they may accordingly, if they will, retravel the road to inspect the landscape for themselves. . . . The scientific investigator convinces others not by the plausibility of his definitions and the cogeny of his dialectic, but by placing before them the specified course of experiences, searchings, doings and findings in consequence of which certain things have been found. . . . Dialectic thereby itself receives a designated status and office. . . . All the wit and subtlety of reflection and of dialectic find scope in the elaboration and conveying of directions that intelligibly point out a course to be followed.[17]

I should like now to raise the question: If constructive thinking consists in delimiting a problem, suggesting, investigating, and verifying hypotheses, and if demonstration consists in presenting an ac-

[14] Eugenio Rignano, *The Psychology of Reasoning* (tr. by Winifred A. Holl; Harcourt, Brace, and Company, 1923), 82–83.

[15] *Ibid.*, Chapter X, "Dialectical Reasoning."

[16] John Dewey, *Experience and Nature* (Open Court Publishing Company, 1925), 11.

[17] *Ibid.*, 9.

count of the process by which we arrive at a conclusion as Professor Dewey suggests,[18] then where in this picture are we to place the logical deductive process with which logicians have primarily concerned themselves since the time of Aristotle? Professor Dewey's answer to this question is that it plays a part in both constructive thinking and demonstration. In the process of arriving at a conclusion, one of the important steps is the deductive amplification of the hypotheses suggested. In terms of group discussion, we may say that each hypothesis entertained by the group starts a train of deductive implications which may recommend its endorsement as a basis for action, or may suggest further hypotheses which must in their turn be thought through in terms of their deductive implications. It follows from what has already been said that in the process of demonstration, this deductive amplification is one of the things that is pointed out, found, and shown, along with the other steps that entered into the constructive thinking which gave rise to the conclusion.

That this process of deductive amplification plays an important part in discussion will certainly be clear from even a casual examination of discussion in progress. Examinations of the stenographic reports of discussion groups have convinced me that this process is one of the principal, if not the most important, technique involved in discussion. The very nature of discussion gives prominence to this process, the thinking through and discussing of the implications of the various hypotheses suggested. Most of the time of a good discussion group is taken with it, and the fruitfulness of discussion is sharply conditioned by the competence with which it is undertaken. How significant, then, is the observation of L. S. Stebbing, "The deficiencies of common sense are most obviously revealed in the deductive development of the hypothesis." [19]

Since the contributions of classical dialectic and rhetoric which I wish to discuss relate to this deductive amplification, it will be helpful to say a few more words about it. Aristotle's analysis of logical de-

[18] Accounts of the method of demonstration which Professor Dewey describes as "showing, pointing, coming upon a thing," as distinguished from the usual conception of syllogistic demonstration, may be found in George Campbell, *Philosophy of Rhetoric* (Harper and Brothers, 1859), 63–72; and in John Locke, *Essay Concerning Human Understanding*, IV, XVII, 4 (in *The Works of John Locke*, Bohn Classical Library), Vol. II, 284–293. See also J. M. O'Neill and J. H. McBurney, *The Working Principals of Argument* (The Macmillan Company, 1932), Chapter X.

[19] L. S. Stebbing, *A Modern Introduction to Logic* (Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1930), 238.

duction (as distinguished from dialectical and rhetorical deduction) is presented in the syllogistic doctrine of the *Analytics*. It is based on the three so-called laws of thought; the law of Identity, of Contradiction, and of Excluded Middle. The modern extension of this formal doctrine may be seen in the *Principia Mathematica* of Whitehead and Russell and other formulations of what is now commonly referred to as symbolic logic.[20] The crux of this logic is to be found in its attempt to set forth the conditions of consistency between propositions, so that, given certain propositions, we may know what is thereby implied. It is purely formal in conception and demands for its operation the use of accurately defined, discrete elements or terms. Because the words of ordinary language are lacking in these characteristics, they have been abandoned in favor of symbols to which can be assigned definite meanings and which can be expected to retain them in a given context.

The limitations of symbolic logic for our purposes are largely two: in the first place, it directs its attention primarily to the outcome of thought, and in so doing does not illuminate as helpfully as it might the nature of thought in process, which is the primary concern of discussion; and second, the logic of discussion, whether in process or in outcome, must of necessity function with the words of ordinary language. Professor A. P. Ushenko, in his recent book *The Theory of Logic*, clearly recognizes the limitations of symbolic logic which I have just pointed out. He states:

> Constructive thinking is thought in the making, which presupposes inspiration with the play of images as a source. It requires freedom of exercising imagination which must not be restricted even by the conditions of formal consistency. For the outcome of developing thought is more often than not a correction of, and so inconsistent with the ideas at its starting point." [21]

It must be recognized, then, that in constructive thinking or thought in progress, the laws of formal validity often become shackles which hinder the progress of thought, and that the concepts functioning in such thinking should not be reduced to unchanging, discrete elements, even if it were within the realm of linguistic possibility. This position of necessity repudiates the traditional laws of thought to a large degree, at least in the realm which we have been referring to as thought in process. It therefore becomes necessary to

[20] See C. I. Lewis and C. H. Langford, *Symbolic Logic* (The Century Company, 1932), 506 pp.

[21] A. P. Ushenko, *The Theory of Logic* (Edwards Brothers, Ann Arbor, Michigan, 1935), 10.

supply some other analysis of the thought processes herein involved if they are to be considered something other than the result of mere chance, good luck, and occasional genius. The most significant attempts to present such an analysis are in my opinion to be found in Professor Dewey's logical writings, the numerous works of Alfred Sidgwick, F. S. C. Schiller's contributions, and in Boris Bogoslovsky's account of dynamic logic in his *Technique of Controversy*. *Our New Ways of Thinking* by George Boas should also be noted in this connection.

An account of these works here would greatly exceed the limits of this paper, but in general the emphasis is on the necessity of getting away from what Schiller calls "the fabulous monstrosity found only in logic books," or formal validity,[22] and on the importance of capitalizing upon the variabilty of meaning inherent in the words of ordinary language rather than vainly attempting to bind them by hard and fast definitions. Bogoslovsky explains four principles which are helpful in this connection: polarity, the partial functioning of concepts, continuity, and quantitative indices.[23] According to this analysis, a concept "A" should never be used separately from its "Non-A;" the pairs which determine which aspect of a concept is to be put into operation should be explicitly expressed; efficient thinking must start with an assumption of continuity in potentiality and work for its actual realization; and finally, the quantitative value of a unit of thought must be explicitly indicated, preferably in terms of objective continuum-scales between the two poles of the opposites. Thus, for example, polarity may be established between *democracy* and *autocracy*, and a continuum worked out so that any referent, say *fascism* or *socialism*, may be given its proper place on this continuum. In this way the necessity of classifying these terms either as democracy or autocracy categorically and absolutely is obviated. The result is a more accurate and tolerant use of language and the reduction of misunderstanding and contentious argument.

VI. Classical Contributions to Discussion

We may now notice the respects in which Aristotle's ananlysis of the reasoning process in dialectic and rhetoric modifies his conception of the apodeictic syllogism as developed in the *Analytics*, in the direction indicated by the writers we have just been considering.

[22] F. C. S. Schiller, *Logic for Use* (Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1930), 469 pp.

[23] Boris B. Bogoslovsky, *The Technique of Controversy* (Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1928), 14–18.

Throughout his treatment of dialectic in the *Topics*, Aristotle distinguishes between discussion in the spirit of competition and, to use his own words, "those who discuss things in the spirit of inquiry." [24] His conception of dialectic may be understood by the four functions which he assigns to it, intellectual training, casual encounters, the study of the philosophical sciences, and the investigation of the principles used in the other sciences. On this last point he states:

> . . . . it is through the opinions generally held on the particular points that these have to be discussed, and the task belongs properly, or most appropriately, to dialectic: for dialectic is a process of criticism wherein lies the path to the principles of all inquiries.[25]

The point of interest here is that Aristotle held the principles of all sciences to be subject to the scrutiny of dialectical inquiry. He describes the *dialectical problem* as "a subject of inquiry that contributes either to choice or avoidance, or to truth and knowledge, and that either by itself, or as a help to the solution of some other problem." [26] A *thesis* is explained as a supposition concerning the problem, and it is assumed that these suppositions will be introduced in the discussion for the consideration of the group.[27] I call particular attention to the dialectical problems contributing to choice and avoidance, and to the resemblance between the thesis and our conception of the hypothesis.

In Book I, Chapter 15 of the *Topics*, Aristotle recognizes, in a tentative way at least, the polarity of concepts and the necessity of determining which aspect of a concept is functioning. For example, he explains that the term *fine* as applied to a picture has *ugly* as its contrary, but, as applied to a house, *ramshackle*. He also indicates that some meanings and their contraries have what he calls intermediates, such as grey between white and black, and admonishes us to consider the degree to which terms apply.

In considering Aristotle's analysis of the reasoning process in dialectic and rhetoric, it should be understood that both the dialectical syllogism and the enthymeme partake of the nature of the logical syllogism in many important respects. Like the logical syllogism, so far as formal validity is achieved, the formal deducibility of the conclusion from the premises depends upon the *relation of inclusion*, a special case of the formal property of *transitivity*. In this respect, these forms are subject in a general way to the same limitations as

[24] Aristotle, *Topica*, VIII, 5.
[25] *Ibid.*, I, 2.
[26] *Ibid.*, I, 10, and 11.
[27] *Ibid.*, I, 11.

the logical syllogism, in the fact that recent logical studies have established other transitive relations than inclusion, and also relations which possess logical properties other than transitivity.

On the other hand, it must be realized that Aristotle introduces important modifications of the logical syllogism in his conceptions of the dialectical syllogism and the enthymeme, which meet many of the objections which are commonly raised against the applications of the syllogism in the field of discussion. In the first place, both the dialectical syllogism and the enthymeme are understood to employ propositions expressing probabilities, opinions, and the like; the conclusions, therefore, even though the inference be formally valid, can claim nothing more than probability. These forms draw their premises from commonly held theses, tentatively adopted positions, and other pragmatic considerations which appear to be useful in carrying on the reasoning process. They do not wait on the material certainty which is held forth as the logical necessity of the apodeictic syllogism and thereby lend themselves to the needs of discussion as the logical syllogism does not.

In the second place, the enthymeme, if not the dialectical syllogism, not only employs probabilities understood in a propositional or material sense, but also waives the necessity of formal validity in many cases. Here again it differs from the logical syllogism in a way that recommends its usefulness in discussion. Many enthymematic arguments which establish a high degree of probability and yield conclusions with definite pragmatic values, constitute inferential processes which cannot be thrown into formally valid syllogisms. For example the *logical* value of two affiirmative premises in the second figure of the categorical syllogism is absolute zero, and yet, as Aristotle explains in the *Prior Analytics* II, 27, the second figure is admissible for rhetorical purposes. "An accumulation of enthymemes, all *logically* worthless, may amount to a *moral* certainty."[28] In other words, the enthymeme is a recognition of the fact that conclusions with a high degree of probability may be achieved by reasoning processes which do not constitute proof from a formal standpoint.[29]

It would be decidedly amiss to close this paper without recog-

[28] H. L. Mansel, *Artis Logicae Rudimenta from the Text of Aldrich* (third ed., Oxford, 1856), 214.

[29] J. H. McBurney, "Some Recent Interpretations of the Aristotelian Enthymeme," *Papers of the Michigan Academy of Science, Arts, and Letters,* XXI, 1935, 489–500.

nizing that there is much in Aristotle's conception of dialectic and rhetoric which is sophistic in nature and therefore foreign to the ideals of the present discussion movement. I am not unaware that the concept to which I have made special reference, the enthymeme, is capable of sophistic applications, many of which can be quoted from the pages of Aristotle. Likewise, I have assumed that the relations of the dialectical syllogism and the enthymeme to dialectical and rhetorical proof or demonstration (the *outcome of thought*) are commonly recognized. My only purposes have been to indicate the broad relationships of classical dialectic and rhetoric to the present discussion movement, and to point out some of the important respects in which the modifications of the logical syllogism found in the dialectical syllogism and the enthymeme adapt Aristotle's doctrine to discussion or constructive thinking (*thought in process*) in a way that does not appear commonly to be appreciated.

To the objection that classical rhetoric and dialectic lend themselves to sophistic applications, I can only say of them what one should have to say were a similar objection raised against the theory of discussion:

> The character of the sophist is determined, not by the mere faculty, but by the moral purpose.[30]

BEHIND THE WORD
Studies in the Political and Social Views of the Slave-Struggle Orators
II: Webster

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AT SALISBURY, in New Hampshire, on January 18, 1782, was born a sickly child who was to be hailed as America's greatest orator, one of her greatest statesmen, an outstanding lawyer and the fittest representative of the new national pride and the new national industrial order. At Marshfield, Massachusetts, on October 24, 1852, there died that same man, embittered and disappointed from his failure to attain his dearest wish, the presidency of the United States, maligned and deserted by a considerable body of his former admir-

[30] Aristotle's *Rhetoric* I, 1 ("Chapters from the Rhetoric," translated by T. A. Moxon, in *Everyman's Library*, Volume 901, E. P. Dutton and Company, 1934), 179.

ers, and with his moral integrity deeply questioned by many of the remainder. His funeral rites were observed not with one sermon, but with dozens, preached from all the important pulpits in the land. Daniel Webster without question made a gigantic impress upon his generation and upon his country's history. It is the purpose of this paper to state as precisely as possible what the nature of that impression was.

I. Webster's Critics

Every man who stands out in public life has staunch friends and bitter enemies. It has been Webster's fate to be one of the most admired and one of the most maligned of all American statesmen. Theodore Parker, speaking on the occasion of Webster's death, uttered only a simple truth when he said:[1]

> I am to speak of one of the most conspicuous men that New England ever bore,—conspicuous not by accident, but by the nature of his mind,—one of her ablest intellects. I am to speak of an eminent man, of great power, in a great office, one of the landmarks of politics, now laid low. He seemed so great that some men thought he was himself one of the institutions of America.

But from this point Parker went on to scorch and blister the reputation of Webster with one of the most terribly sustained denunciations that any American politician has yet received. Page after page of particularized charges are concluded thus:[2]

> No living man has done so much to debauch the conscience of the nation; to debauch the press, the pulpit, the forum, and the bar. . . . He poisoned the moral wells of society with his lower law, and men's consciences died of the murrain of beasts, which came because they drank thereat.

John Quincy Adams wrote in bitterness of "the gigantic intellect, the envious temper, the ravenous ambition, and the rotten heart of Daniel Webster."[3] Gamaliel Bradford, with infinite tact, gave it as his opinion that "When we come to consider Webster's political career, it is evident that he was not a largely, or elaborately, or persistently constructive statesman."[4] His greatest contemporary, Ralph Waldo Emerson, measured Webster on the scales of his ideals, and found him sadly wanting:[5]

[1] *Historic Americans*, Centenary Edition of Parker's *Works* (Boston, 1908), 266–267.

[2] *Ibid.*, 371.

[3] Cited by Gamaliel Bradford, "Daniel Webster," in *As God Made Them* (Boston, 1929), 9.

[4] *Ibid.*, 22.

[5] *Works*, Centenary Edition (Boston, 1878), XI, 203–204.

> Mr. Webster is a man who lives by his memory, a man of the past, not a man of faith or of hope. He obeys his powerful animal nature;—and his finely developed understanding only works freely and with all its force, when it stands for animal good; that is, for property. He believes, in so many words, that government exists for the protection of property. . . . What he finds already written, he will defend. Lucky that so much had got well written when he came. For he has no faith in the power of self-government. . . . All the drops of his blood have eyes that look downward.

That this feeling of repugnance was mutual is suggested in a comment made in his later years by Webster, that he would not visit in Concord because his friends there "have become a good deal estranged, to my great grief, by abolitionism, free-soilism, transcendentalism, and other vagaries of the imagination."[6] V. L. Parrington did not wonder that these two failed to understand one another for, as he saw it, Emerson and Webster "embodied the diverse New England tendencies that derived from the Puritan and the Yankee: the idealistic and the practical; the ethical and the rationalistic; the intellectual revolutionary, ready to turn the world upside down in theory, planting at the base of the established order the dynamite of ideas, and the soberly conservative, understanding the economic springs of political action, inclined to pessimism, neither wishing for Utopian change nor expecting it." [7] To Parrington, as to Emerson, Webster's political thinking rested on a corner-stone of economics, and his career might be summarized in the phrase: "so useful to the rising capitalism." [8]

But Henry Cabot Lodge, a Websterian critic who could hardly be called prejudiced and certainly not overly enthusiastic,[9] found the orator's significance to be different, and far greater. "He stands today," Lodge concluded after a careful study, "as the pre-eminent champion and exponent of nationality . . . Here lies the debt which the Amercian people owe to Webster, and here is his meaning and importance in his own time and to us today." [10] Webster himself, speaking in May, 1852, just before his death, with a modesty which he did not feel, and a sense of failure induced by the rejection of his presidential aspirations and by the unfriendly reaction to his Seventh

[6] Cited from Sanborn's *Life of Thoreau*, by Vernon Louis Parrington, in *The Romantic Revolution in America* (1927), 314.

[7] *Ibid.*, 304.

[8] *Ibid.*, 316.

[9] Bradford, *op. cit.*, 5, accounts Lodge's life of Webster as the "most accurate study of his character."

[10] *Daniel Webster* American Statesman Series (Boston, 1911), 361–362.

of March speech, summed up his life as follows: "I have given my life to law and politics. Law is uncertain and politics are utterly vain." [11]

These critiques are representative of the searchingly unfriendly examinations of Webster. The many eulogies and defenses are often too extravagant to merit serious consideration. At any rate, they need not be presented here, as the analysis of Webster's political principles will in itself be the best means of determining to what extent these strictures are true. In this analysis one regrettable premise must be admitted. Lodge is but summing up a well-established fact when he says: [12]

> When Mr. Webster failed it was a moral failure. His moral character was not equal to his intellectual force. All the errors he ever committed, whether in public or in private life, in political action or in regard to money obligations, came from moral weakness. He was deficient in that intensity of conviction which carries men beyond and above all triumphs of statesmanship, and makes them the embodiment of the great moral forces which move the world. If Mr. Webster's moral power had equalled his intellectual greatness, he would have had no rival in our history.

This premise need have no effect in a study of Webster's ideas except to serve as a warning in the examination of his motives and in determining the bases of his thought.

II. His Views on the Union

Lodge, as has been noted, felt that Webster's chief importance lay in his devotion to the Union. Likewise, George Ticknor Curtis, the orator's most exhaustive biographer, declared that his continuous defense of the constitution was the "main characteristic of Mr. Webster throughout his whole career." [13] To the unfriendly Parrington it appeared that "he came increasingly to take a legalistic view of government." [14] In Webster's own utterances will be found the best clue to his ideas of the nature and importance of the federal government.

In his Plymouth Oration, as early as 1820, Webster took occasion to declare that government must be examined in the light of practical conditions as they exist. He was no disciple of the 18th century *a priori* republican theorists, building a republic upon the airy and in-

[11] *Ibid.*, p. 346.
[12] *Ibid.*, p. 360.
[13] *Life of Daniel Webster* (1870), II, 522.
[14] *Op. cit.*, 305.

substantial doctrines of equality and fraternity. "The practical character of government," he said, "depends often on a variety of considerations besides the abstract frame of its constitutional organization. Among these are the condition and tenure of property; the laws regulating its alienation and descent; the presence or absence of a military power; an armed or unarmed yeomanry; the spirit of the age, and the degree of general intelligence."[15] His idea of the foundation of government was further elucidated twenty years later, in the conclusion of his speech to the financiers of Wall Street. Here he declared his conviction, similar to Burke's, that a government is organic, and has a life of its own above and beyond the individuals who compose it: "Though individuals flourish and decay, states are immortal . . . The individuals who compose them may change, as the atoms of our bodies change, but the political community still exists in its aggregate capacity, as our bodies still exist in their natural capacity; with this only difference, that we know that our natural frames must soon dissolve, and return to their original dust; but for our country, she yet lives, she ever dwells in our hearts, and it will, even at the last solemn moment, go up as our final aspiration to Heaven that she may be immortal." [16]

From both of these utterances it is apparent that Webster believed in conservation, rather than change and experimentation; thus it was inevitable that he should favor the continuance of the Union against the nullification principles of the South. The first real clash came in January, 1830. Calhoun and some of the other southern statesmen had been formulating the theory that the government had been established originally not by the people as a whole, but by the states as self-governing entities. Hence, they reasoned, the states individually were at liberty to withdraw from the Union when they wished. Hayne first presented this doctrine to the Senate in a debate on the disposition of the western lands. Webster replied on January 26, and threw all of the weight of his eloquence and influence into the scales of a united country. In strict conformity with his views as expressed ten years before, that government should be judged upon the basis of actual conditions, he dismissed briefly the arguments as to the origin of the federal union, and brought the discussion to its status at that time. From his speech occupying over seventy pages, a brief extract

[15] *Works of Daniel Webster*, 14th edition (Boston, 1866), (hereafter cited as *Works*), I, 34.

[16] *Ibid.*, II, 79.

of two paragraphs is sufficient to indicate the strength of his reply to the nullifiers: [17]

> This government, Sir, is the independent offspring of the popular will. It is not the creature of State legislatures; nay, more, if the whole truth must be told, the people brought it into existence, established it, and have hitherto supported it, for the very purpose, amongst others, of imposing certain salutary restraints on States sovereignties. The States cannot now make war; they cannot contract alliances; they cannot make, each for itself, separate regulations of commerce; they cannot lay imposts; they cannot coin money. If this Constitution, Sir, be the creature of State legislatures, it must be admitted that it has obtained a strange control over the volitions of its creators. The people, then, Sir, erected this government. They gave it a Constitution, and in that Constitution they have enumerated the powers which they bestow on it. They have made it a limited government. They have defined its authority. They have restrained it to the exercise of such powers as are granted; and all others, they declare, are reserved to the States or the people. But, Sir, they have not stopped here. . . . Sir, the very chief end, the main design, for which the whole Constitution was framed and adopted, was to establish a government that should not be obliged to act through State agency, or depend on State opinion and State discretion. The people had had quite enough of that kind of government under the Confederation. Under that system, the legal action, the application of law to individuals, belonged exclusively to the States. Congress could only recommend; their acts were not of binding force, till the States had adopted and sanctioned them. Are we in that condition still? Are we yet at the mercy of State discretion and State construction? Sir, if we are, then vain will be our attempt to maintain the Constitution under which we sit.

This was Webster's blast to the nullifiers—the strongest they ever received. He ended it with his great plea, which has come to represent his political credo, and which is now carved on the base of his statue in New York City: "Liberty *and* Union, now and forever, one and inseparable." [18]

The result of Webster's speech was not, of course, to end the nullification movement. It did lead to the substitution by South Carolina of its greatest son, Calhoun, in the Senate in place of Hayne. In 1833 Calhoun made one of his most formidable attacks upon the supremacy of the federal government, with the introduction into the Senate of three resolutions asserting the sovereignty of the separate States. Webster arose immediately to reply. "The cause which he has espoused," he declared in reference to Calhoun, "finds no basis in the Constitution, no succor from public sympathy, no cheering from a patriotic community. He has no foothold on which to stand while he

[17] *Ibid.*, III, 333–334.
[18] *Ibid.*, III, 342.

might display the powers of his acknowledged talents." [19] Continuing, Webster pointed out, "He cannot open the book, and look upon our written frame of government, without seeing that it is called a *constitution*. This may well be appalling to him. It threatens his whole doctrine of compact, and its darling derivatives, nullification and secession, with instant confutation. Because, if he admits our instrument of government to be a *constitution*, then, for that very reason, it is not a compact between sovereigns; a constitution of government and a compact between sovereign powers being things essentially unlike in their very natures, and incapable of ever being the same." [20] Webster went on to demonstrate the impracticality of admitting the principle of secession. "Whose will be the army? Whose the navy? Who will pay the debts? Who fulfill the public treaties? Who perform the constitutional guarantees? Who govern this District and the Territories? Who retain the public property?" [21] Thus, throughout the course of a long speech, Webster continued to pile up practical objections to the nullification theory. It is difficult to see the justification of Parrington's declaration that at this time Webster was becoming increasingly legalistic in his arguments." [22] Rather, his appeal was directly to the realistic consideration of existing facts. This seems to have been prevailingly his point of view.[23]

III. His Views on Slavery

Webster's views upon the "peculiar institution" of the South were early and strongly expressed. In 1819, during the discussion of the Missouri Compromise, he presented in Congress a memorial against the extension of slavery into new states, in which occurred these words: [24]

> We have a strong feeling of the injustice of any toleration of slavery. Circumstances have entailed it on a portion of our community which cannot be immediately relieved from it without consequences more injurious than the suffering of the evil. But to permit it in a new country, where yet no habits are formed which render it indispensable, what is it but to encourage that rapa-

[19] *Ibid.*, III, 449.
[20] *Ibid.*, III, 452.
[21] *Ibid.*, III, 459.
[22] Cf. *ante*, note 14.
[23] His position in the Seventh of March Speech will be discussed later. For his other chief defenses of the Union, cf. *Works, op. cit.*, I, 195–215, 229–232, 273–274, 319–336; III, 290, 317–341, 343-347, 449–505; and V. 361–362; and Lodge, *op. cit.*, 68, and 174–180.
[24] Cited by Lodge, *op. cit.*, 276-277.

city and fraud and violence against which we have so long pointed the denunciation of our penal code?

From this passage it seems apparent that Webster contemplated the time when slavery would be abolished from the South. A year later he delivered a spirited attack upon the slave trade, filled with emotional fervor, in the course of his Plymouth Oration: [25]

I hear the sound of the hammer, I see the smoke of the furnaces where the manacles and fetters are still forged for human limbs. I see the visages of those who, by stealth and at midnight, labor in this work of hell,—foul and dark as may become the artifices of such instruments of misery and torture. Let that spot be purified or let it cease to be New England. Let it be purified, or let it be set aside from the Christian world; let it be put out of the circle of human sympathies and human regards, and let civilized men henceforth have no communion with it.

If we now leap over a period of ten years, we find him much cooler in his attack, doubtless because the issue was already becoming a source of danger to the Union. In his reply to Hayne, in 1830, he denied that the North was attempting to destroy slavery in the South, but he pointed out how much better off the North was without slaves, and he protested against the evocation of the slavery issue as a political lever by which to unite the southern against the northern states: [26]

This feeling, always carefully kept alive and maintained at too intense a heat to admit discrimination or reflection, is a lever of great power in our political machine. There is not and never has been a disposition in the North to interfere with these interests of the South. Such interference has never been supposed to be within the power of government; nor has it been in any way attempted. The slavery of the South has always been regarded as a matter of domestic policy left with the States themselves, and with which the Federal government had nothing to do. Certainly, Sir, I am and ever have been of that opinion. The gentleman, indeed, argues that slavery, in the abstract, is no evil. Most assuredly, I need not say that I differ with him altogether and most widely on that point. I regard domestic slavery as one of the greatest evils, both moral and political.

Lodge declared that "After the reply to Hayne in 1830, Mr. Webster became a standing candidate for the presidency, or for the Whig nomination to that office. From that time forth the sharp denunciation of slavery and traffic in slaves disappears, although there is no indication that he ever altered his original opinion on these points; but he never ceased, sometimes mildly, sometimes in the most vigorous

[25] *Works, op. cit.*, I, 45–46.
[26] *Ibid.*, III, 278–279.

and sweeping manner, to attack and oppose the extension of slavery to new regions, and the increase of slave territory." [27] Yet Lodge admitted that in 1836 Webster stood forth in a Senate minority of six to favor the recepton of anti-slavery petitions; and he even presented three petitions himself.[28] It is true that in Niblo Garden, New York, speaking in 1837, Webster said:[29]

> I frankly avow my entire unwillingness to do anything that shall extend the slavery of the African race on this continent, or add other slave-holding States to the Union. When I say that I regard slavery in itself as a great moral, social, and political evil, I only use the language which has been adopted by distinguished men, themselves citizens of slave-holding States. I shall do nothing, therefore, to favor or encourage its further extension. We have slavery already amongst us. The Constitution found it in the Union, it recognized it, and gave it solemn guarantees. To the full extent of the guarantees we are all bound in honor, in justice, and by the Constitution.

He went on, however, to declare that the anti-slavery spirit was so strong that if it were restrained, "I know nothing even in the Constitution or in the Union itself, which would not be endangered by the explosion which might follow." [30] Certainly the tone of Mr. Candidate Webster's denunciation of slavery is milder, but the same ideas as previously are there. Now if we turn through another decade, and come to the time of the Mexican War, we find Webster one of the most determined opponents of the annexation of Texas, largely because of the slavery issue.[31] "In my opinion," he said, "the people of the United States will not consent to bring into the Union a new, vastly extensive, and slave-holding country, large enough for half a dozen or a dozen States. In my opinion, they ought not to consent to it." [32]

Thus we see that up to 1846, at least, Webster expressed himself freely, if with growing moderation, upon the slavery issue. Let us now examine his famous Seventh of March Speech, which brought upon his head the wrath of Whittier and other abolitionists.

IV. The Seventh of March Speech

The speech which Webster made in the United States Senate on March 7, 1850, upon a series of resolutions respecting slavery and

[27] Lodge, *op. cit.*, 304.
[28] *Ibid.*, 280–281.
[29] *Works, op. cit.*, I, 356.
[30] *Ibid.*, I, 357. Cf. also III, 278–283; and IV, 371–376.
[31] Cf. *Ibid.*, I, 354–357; II, 437–438; and V, 55–59.
[32] *Ibid*, I, 356.

its extension into the new Southwest territory, was certainly the climax, and in a sense was also the anti-climax, of his career. Viewed as a defense of the constitution and of the Union against the strong forces of agitation and dissention, this speech fittingly marks the high point of Webster's labors for the preservation of the federal government. Viewed as an expression of his moral attitude toward slavery, the speech was received by his admirers with a shock of surprise. The moment was an exceedingly tense one in American history. Conflicting forces which had been gathering head with increasing intensity for twenty years were agitated anew over the question of the disposition of the lands newly won from Mexico. The entrenched interests of the South were united under the unswerving and able leadership of Calhoun. The mediating faction which rested all its hope upon compromise was led by Henry Clay. The powerful anti-slavery sentiment of the North looked for its natural leader upon Daniel Webster, who had already hurled thunderbolts of eloquence against the southern evil. "An immense audience assembled in the Senate-chamber at an early hour of Thursday, the 7th of March,"[33] to hear him. Senator Walker, of Wisconsin, who was entitled to the floor, graciously yielded it to Webster. The stage was set with dramatic finesse for a great speech. And Webster rose to the occasion in magnificent form.

He went at once to the heart of his purpose:[34]

> Mr. President,—I wish to speak to-day, not as a Massachusetts man, nor as a Northern man, but as an American. . . . It is not to be denied that we live in the midst of strong agitations, and are surrounded by very considerable dangers to our institutions and government. The imprisoned winds are let loose. The East, the North, and the stormy South combine to throw the whole sea into commotion, to toss its billows to the skies, and disclose its profoundest depths. I do not affect to regard myself, Mr. President, as holding, or as fit to hold, the helm in this combat with the political elements; but I have a duty to perform, and I mean to perform it with fidelity, not without a sense of existing dangers, but not without hope. I have a part to act, not for my own security or safety, for I am looking out for no fragment upon which to float away from the wreck, if wreck there must be, but for the good of the whole, and the preservation of all; and there is that which will keep me to my duty during this struggle, whether the sun and the stars shall appear, or shall not appear for many days. I speak to-day for the preservation of the Union. "Hear me for my cause." I speak to-day, out of a solicitous and anxious heart, for the restoration to the country of that quiet and that harmony which make the blessings of this Union so rich, and so dear to us all. These are

[33] *Ibid.*, V, 324.
[34] *Ibid.*, V, 325–326.

the topics that I propose to myself to discuss; these are the motives, and the sole motives, that influence me in the wish to communicate my opinions to the Senate and the country; and if I can do anything, however little, for the promotion of these ends, I shall have accomplished all that I expect.

This vigorous assertion of disinterestedness has been doubted by many of Webster's critics, who have believed that his real motive was to present himself as an ideal compromise candidate for the presidency. Lodge's estimate of his motive is typical: "He wished to stand forth as the great savior and pacificator . . . Mr. Webster concluded that the best way . . . was to go with the heaviest battalions." [35] The whole tendency of Webster's political life lends some color to this presumption, and a letter which he wrote to Peter Harvey on February 14, 1850, supports it with indirect proof. In direct contradiction of the fears for the Union which Webster's speech emphasizes, and which form the basis for his support of the compromise measures, Webster said in this letter: "I do not partake in any degree, in those apprehensions which you say some of our friends entertain of the dissolution of the Union, or the breaking up of the Government." [36] It appears then, that either Webster's apprehensions developed within the three-weeks period before this speech, or that he abandoned his beliefs for his ambition. Perhaps Webster himself was not wholly aware of all of the complex emotions, rationalizations, and beliefs which molded his change of attitude.

Just how great was his departure from his former principles in the Seventh of March Speech? It has been customary to regard that change as revolutionary. Lodge pictured it as dramatic, sudden, and complete:[37]

In 1819, although not in public life, Mr. Webster, as is clear from the tone of the Boston memorial, was opposed to any compromise involving an extension of slavery. In 1832–33 he was the most conspicuous and unyielding enemy of the principle of compromise in the country. He then took the ground that the time had come to test the strength of the Constitution and the Union, and that any concession would have a fatally weakening effect. In 1850 he supported a compromise which was so one-sided that it hardly deserved the name.

Lodge further interpreted the speech as follows: "The speech, if exactly defined, is in reality, a powerful effort, not for compromise or for the Fugitive Slave Law, or any other one thing, but to arrest the whole anti-slavery movement, and that way put an end to the dangers which threatened the Union." [38]

[35] *Op. cit.*, 331.
[36] Curtis, *op. cit.*, II, 398.
[37] *Op. cit.*, 308.
[38] *Ibid.*, p. 323.

As a matter of fact, the speech contains not so much a change of principles as a change of emphasis. Webster's purpose, whatever his motive may have been, was conciliation. He tried to make the North and South each see that the other side, too, had its grievances. The trouble was, from the standpoint of his northern following, that he spent five pages in detailing the grievances of the South, and only two for those of the North. As a result, his speech took on a definitely pro-southern tone. Likewise, his attitude upon several very touchy issues irritated the North. Regarding the Fugitive Slave Law, he made a forthright attack upon its evaders: [39]

> In that respect, the South, in my judgment, is right, and the North is wrong. Every member of every Northern legislature is bound by oath, like every other officer in the country, to support the Constitution of the United States; and the article of the Constitution which says to these States that they shall deliver up fugitives from service is as binding in honor and conscience as any other article. . . . I put it to all sober and sound minds at the North as a question of morals and a question of conscience. What right have they, in their legislative capacity, to endeavor to get around this Constitution to the persons whose slaves escape from them? None at all; none at all. Neither in the forum of conscience, nor before the face of the Constitution, are they, in my opinion, justified in such an attempt. . . . Wherever I go, and whenever I speak on the subject, and when I speak here I desire to speak to the whole North, I say that the South has been injured in this respect, and has a right to complain; and the North has been too careless of what I think the Constitution peremptorily and emphatically enjoins upon her as a duty.

Certainly to his northern partisans this seemed deliberately to be going out of his way to insult and attack a position which to them was morally impregnable if wrong legally.

But Webster went on to wound them even more deeply: [40]

> Then, Sir, there are the Abolition societies, of which I am unwilling to speak, but in regard to which I have very clear notions and opinions. I do not think them useful. I think their operations for the last twenty years have produced nothing good or valuable. At the same time, I believe thousands of their members to be honest and good men, perfectly well-meaning men. They have excited feelings; they think they must do something for the cause of liberty; and, in their sphere of action, they do not see what else they can do than to contribute to an Abolition press, or an Abolition society, or to pay an Abolition lecturer. I do not mean to impute gross motives even to the leaders of these societies, but I am not blind to the consequences of their proceedings.

Finally, after having made these generous concessions to Southern prejudice and opinion, Webster reached the point toward which his

[39] *Works, op. cit.*, V, 354, 355.
[40] *Works, op. cit.*, V, 357.

introduction logically led. He referred to the threats of secession made by the southern leaders, and ridiculed their claims that a state was at perfect liberty to withdraw peacefully from the Union:[41]

> Peaceable secession! Peabeable secession! The concurrent agreement of all the members of this great republic to separate! A voluntary separation, with alimony on one side and on the other. Why, what would be the result? Where is the line to be drawn? What States are to secede? What is to remain American? What am I to be? An American no longer? Am I to become a sectional man, a local man, a separatist, with no country in common with the gentlemen who sit around me here, or who fill the other house of Congress? Heaven forbid! Where is the flag of the republic to remain? Where is the eagle still to tower—or is he to cower, and shrink, and fall to the ground? . . . I have heard it suggested elsewhere, that the idea has been entertained, that, after the dissolution of this Union, a Southern Confederacy might be formed. I am sorry, Sir, that it has ever been thought of, talked of, or dreamed of, in the wildest flights of human imagination. But the idea, so far as it exists, must be of a separation, assigning the slave States to one side and the free States to the other. Sir, I may express myself too strongly, perhaps, but there are impossibilities in the natural as well as the physical world, and I hold the idea of a separation of these States, those that are free to form one government, and those that are slave-holding to form another, as such an impossibility. We could not separate the States by any such line, if we were to draw it. We could not sit down here today and draw a line of separation that would satisfy any five men in the country. There are natural causes that would keep and tie us together, and there are social and domestic relations which we could not break if we would, and which we should not if we could.

Now to an observer from this distance there is nothing in the words of this speech which is inconsistent with Webster's former professions. He had always been, within his lights, a strict constructionist; as such, he must perforce support the Fugitive Slave Law. As a defender of the Union, he must condemn such a disintegrating force as Abolitionism. Seeing a strong and growing conflict between the sections, and noting the unanimity and determination of the South, he sought to persuade the North to lead in making concessons. What he had forgotten, however, was the fact which he stressed in his Niblo Garden speech in 1837, that any effort to check Abolitionism must result in an explosion which would wreck the Union. He had lost, too, the strong moral indignation with which in 1819, 1820, 1830, and 1837 he had condemned slavery. But his chief fault, if such it can be called, was that, like his great opponent Calhoun, he refused to accept the irrepressible conflict as irrepressible. It was easy for the fanatics and humanitarians of the North, who placed their cause

[41] *Ibid.*, V, 361–362.

above the Union, to condemn him for defending the continuance of slavery. It is easy for post-war historians, bolstered by the consciousness that the war *did* occur, to condemn him for having wavered in his principles in a fruitless effort to prevent it. But from Webster's own point of view—with his conservatism, his belief in establishment, in property rights, his love of the Union—the course he took was patriotic, conciliatory, and perhaps (upon this point we do not know) self-sacrificial. His closing plea at least sounds sincere: "Let us make our generation one of the strongest and brightest links in that golden chain which is destined, I fondly believe, to grapple the people of all the States to this Constitution for ages to come." [42]

Finally, perhaps Webster's speech can only be fairly judged in the light of a remark he made four years previously, on a wholly different question. "Compromise," he told the Senate, while discussing the Oregon boundary dispute, on February 26, 1846, "I can understand; but negotiation, with a fixed resolution to take and not to give, with a pre-determination not to take less than the whole, is what I do not and cannot understand in diplomacy." [43] Believing basically in this principle, Webster made an excellent Secretary of State; he negotiated a difficult and important treaty with Great Britain, and he is credited by some historians with having prevented a war over the Oregon territory.[44] If this principle proved right in so many cases, it was not easy to see why it should be so wrong when applied to the growing breach between the northern and southern states.

V. His Views on Property

Parrington, as we have seen, thought that Webster's central thesis was the sanctity of property. This study has, rather, defended Lodge's theory, that Webster's importance in his own day and in ours arose from his defense of the Union. The two ideas are not, however, irreconcilable. Webster believed that the government was established upon property, and that the two must be protected together. Throughout his career, however inconsistent he might be on specific economic questions, he maintained that thesis. In his Plymouth Oration, for instance, in 1820, he declared, "A republican form of government rests not more on political constitutions than on those laws which regulate the descent and transmission of property . . . The freest government, if it could exist, would not be long acceptable, if the

[42] *Works, loc.* V, 365.
[43] *Works, loc.* V, 69.
[44] Lodge, *op. cit.*, 265–267.

tendency of the laws were to create a rapid accumulation of property in few hands, and to render the great mass of the population dependent and penniless . . . It would seem, then, to be the part of political wisdom to found government on property; and to establish such distribution of property, by the laws which regulate its transmission and alienation, as to interest the great majority of society in the support of the government." [45] These were liberal views indeed, and, if carried to their logical conclusion, would imply that a republican form of government would best be maintained by an equal division of property. A decade later, when New England had become an industrial section, and Webster had allied himself to entrenched wealth, he still developed the idea of government and property as being closely joined, but he was apparently willing that the control of both should be in the hands of the few. At a public dinner tendered him as a mark of respect by the leading men of New York City, on March 10, 1831, Webster interpreted the Constitution as the protector of wealth. "It would be strange, indeed," he said, "if the members of this vast commercial community should not be first and foremost to rally for the Constitution, whenever opinions and doctrines are advanced hostile to its principles." [46] Two years later, speaking to the citizens of Pittsburgh, at a reception tendered in his honor, he reiterated this same position, in language sufficiently indefinite to seem to include the interests of the working classes: [47]

> Next to the preservation of the government itself, there can hardly be a more vital question, to such a community as this, than that which regards their own employments, and the preservation of that policy which the government has adopted and cherished for the encouragement and protection of those employments. This is not, in a society like this, a matter which affects the interest of a particular class, but one which affects the interest of all classes. It runs through the whole chain of human occupation and employment, and touches the means of living and the comfort of all.

In 1840 he was invited, as a friend and political champion, to address a merchants' meeting in Wall Street, New York City. Finally, in 1851, just before his death, he was honored by the young men of Albany, and as part of his political heritage, he left them this conception of the union of government and business under the constitution: [48]

[45] *Works, op. cit.*, 1, pp. 35, 38, 39.
[46] *Ibid.*, I, p. 195.
[47] *Ibid.*, p 297.
[48] *Works*, II, 582-583.

Gentlemen, we live under a Constitution. It has made us what we are. What has carried the American flag all over the world? What has constituted that "unit of commerce," that wherever the stars and stripes are seen, they signify that it belongs to America and united America? . . . What is it but the result of those commercial regulations which united us all together, and made our commerce the same commerce; which made all the States, New York, Massachusetts, and South Carolina, in the aspect of our foreign relations one and the same country, without division, distinction, or separation? Now, Gentlemen, to effect this was the original design of the Constitution. We in our day must see to it . . . that, while you live, this spirit is made to pervade the whole administration of the government.

But, although Webster's devotion to property was unchanging, his attitude toward industrialism, and its step-father, the protective tariff, changed radically toward the end of the 1820's. New England, during his first years in Congress, was an agricultural and commercial section, not industrial. Protective tariffs in that period helped the industry of the central and southern states, and harmed his constituents. Thus, just as Calhoun then defended protection and later assailed it, Webster, who later became the great champion of the tariff system, opposed the tariffs of 1814, 1816 and 1820.[49] In 1820 he argued that the net result of a tariff was to raise prices to consumers. "He concluded by assailing manufacturing as an occupation, attacking it as a means of making the rich richer and the poor poorer; of injuring business by concentrating capital in the hands of a few who obtained control of the corporations; of distributing capital less widely than commerce; of breeding up a dangerous and undesirable population; and of leading to the hurtful employment of women and children." [50] In 1824 he opposed Clay's "American System" tariff, arguing that it tended to destroy commerce.

But New England, seeing that protection was inevitable, shifted from commerce to manufacturing. And Webster shamelessly and completely shifted his tariff views with them. When, in 1828, the woolen manufacturers of New England favored a tariff so bad that it was popularly known as "the bill of abominations," Webster supported it. His change is defended by Lodge, who declared there were no moral considerations in it. "Mr. Webster never at any time treated the question of free trade or protection as anything but one of expediency." [51] And it continued to be expedient for him to favor high tariffs—the protection of entrenched wealth—to the end of his life.

[49] Cf. Lodge's discussion, *op. cit.*, 156–165.
[50] *Ibid.*, 162-163.
[51] Lodge, *op. cit.*, 169.

Webster was also interested in other financial and economic problems, too numerous and too complex to be discussed here. In the single session of 1833-1834 he spoke in favor of the national bank, and on subjects related to it sixty-four times. As Lodge said, "With the exception of Hamilton, Mr. Webster is the only statesman in our history who was capable of such a performance on such a subject." [52] In his Wall Street speech of 1840 he devoted his entire address to a defense of "hard" money as against paper money; in other words, in opposition to inflation, the weapon of the debtor class against the creditor.

VI. Other Views

As befitted a New Englander, Webster spoke often and strongly in favor of education.[53] His views on this subject may be adequately represented by a brief quotation from his Plymouth Oration:[54]

> We do not, indeed, expect all men to be philosophers or statesmen; but we confidently trust, and our expectation of the duration of our system of government rests on that trust, that, by the diffusion of general knowledge and good and virtuous sentiments, the political fabric may be secure, as well against open violence and overthrow, as aganst the slow, but sure, undermining of licentiousness.

Similarly utilitarian was his view of religion: "Whatever makes men good Christians, makes them good citizens." [55] These ideas are quite in keeping with his conservative temper, or, as Lodge phrases it, "his aversion to radical general principles as grounds of action, and his inborn hostility to far-reaching change." [56] To a similar basis may be traced his life-long interest in, and praise of, the solid and conservative occupation of agriculture. [57]

Surprisingly liberal were Webster's views on foreign affairs. On January 19, 1824, he delivered a great speech in the Senate, on the Revolution in Greece, declaring that America owed a duty to help the weaker nations of the world secure justice. [58] In the following year he defended the Monroe Doctrine and a policy of enlightened paternalism toward the South American republics. [59] Likewise in 1825 he de-

[52] *Ibid.*, 228.
[53] *Works*, I, 41-44, 102, 144, 177-90, 305-306, 403.
[54] *Ibid.*, 1, 42.
[55] *Works*, 1, 44.
[56] Lodge, *op. cit.*, 113.
[57] *Works*, 1, 443-457.
[58] *Works*, III, 61-93, especially 76.
[59] Lodge, *op. cit.*, 140-141.

fended President Adams's threat to intervene in Georgia's oppression of the Creek Indians. "If we have bound ourselves by any treaty to do certain things," Webster said, enunciating a high moral principle for international dealings, "we must fulfil such obligation." [60] In his Plymouth Oration he warned America against the seduction of militarism.[61] In 1837 he ridiculed the idea that America could ever be in danger from a foreign foe. [62] As early as 1825 he held up an ideal of international peace and co-operation: "A chief distinction of the present day is a community of opinions and knowledge amongst men in different nations, existing in a degree heretofore unknown. Knowledge has, in our time, triumphed, and is triumphing, over distance, over difference of languages, over diversity of habits, over prejudice, and over bigotry. The civilized and Christian world is fast learning the great lesson, that difference of nation does not imply necessary hostility, and that all contact need not be war." [63] In 1812 he had stood with the rest of New England in opposition to the War of 1812, and in 1839 he assured an English audience of his sense of the oneness of the two countries. [64]

Somewhat in the tone of a politician, Webster celebrated the future as well as the past of his country, and seemed to be a sincere believer in progress.[65] He was also copious in his praise of liberty, but it was often a liberty in the past, and always was described in rhetorical rather than specific terms. Upon questions of governmental administration, he was outspoken against the spoils system,[66] and against the concentration of power in the hands of the executive.[67]

VII. Conclusion

As a student in school and college Webster had a reputation even beyond his deserts as a student prodigy. He said of himself that "he read carefully, meditated on what he read, and retained it so that on any subject he was able to tell all he knew to the best advantage, and

[60] *Ibid.*, 142.

[61] *Works*, I, 9—an eloquent passage.

[62] *Ibid.*, I, 403.

[63] *Ibid.*, I, 71.

[64] *Ibid.*, 1, 435-439.

[65] Cf. especially the Plymouth Oration, the First Bunker Hill Oration, and the speech of July 4, 1851, on laying the corner-stone of an addition to the capital, *Works*, I, 595ff.

[66] *Works*, I, 259-263; IV, 179-199.

[67] *Works*, I, 257-271, 274-275, 331-335; and IV, 179-199.

was careful never to go beyond his depth." [68] Lodge declared that "Mr. Webster took both his politics and his religion from his father, and does not appear to have questioned either. He had a peculiarly conservative cast of mind. In an age of revolution and scepticism he showed no trace of the questioning spirit which then prevailed. Even in his earliest years he was a firm believer in existing institutions, in what was fixed and established." [69] In politics he belonged to the Federalist tradition, and was a member of the Whig party. Parrington pointed out that "He was of the distinguished line of political realists, from Harrington through Locke and Burke, to Hamilton, Madison and John Adams. He derived equally from seventeenth-century liberalism and eighteenth-century Federalism . . . His intellectual master was the acute thinker of the English Commonwealth period, James Harrington. [70] Parrington found Webster in the line of thinkers who held to the theory of economic determinism—and this conclusion is borne out in the brief survey summarized in this paper. [71]

Much of Webster's power in American life came from his unrivaled impressiveness in manner and appearance. He achieved almost unbelievable effects with his audiences. Ticknor declared of his Plymouth Oration, "I was never so excited by public speaking before in my life. Three or four times I thought my temples would burst with the gush of blood." [72] "The passage at the end," Ticknor continued, "where, spreading his arms as if to embrace them, he welcomed future generations to the great inheritance which we have enjoyed, was spoken with the most attractive sweetness and that peculiar smile which in him was always so charming. The effect of the whole was very great." [73] But Webster's effectiveness went far beyond his manner, even to the printed copies of his speeches. Of the Plymouth Oration John Adams declared, "If there be an American who can read it without tears, I am not that American." [74] So important is Webster's oratory to a consideration of his place in American life that Lodge's book is fairly sprinkled with references to his

[68] Lodge, *op. cit.*, 17.

[69] *Ibid.*, 42.

[70] Parrington, *op. cit.*, 305.

[71] Cf. especially Webster's two speeches in 1820, the Plymouth Oration, and The Basis of the Senate, and his Declaration of Whig Principles and Purposes, in 1840.

[72] Cited by Lodge, *op. cit.*, 118-119.

[73] *Ibid.*, 122.

[74] *Ibid.*, 123.

rhetorical methods.[75] The study of Webster as an orator, however, must be omitted here. Suffice it to say that in the Harvard library his bust is included among the seven greatest orators of the world, and that this is a representative judgment. As orator, statesman and thinker, Webster's fame is justly of the highest; only his moral flaws prevented him from being an exceedingly great man.

SYSTEMS OF SPEECH

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IF WE start our investigations of speech with what passes through the air from the speaker to the hearer, we really begin with the middle of a series of events. Going backward we find that the vibratory movements in the air are produced by mass movements of the air in the vocal cavities of the speaker. These, in turn, are produced by movements of the muscles used in speaking. The muscular movements are aroused and controlled by impulses arriving along the nerves from the brain. Ultimately we come to an inner activity that originates what is said. Starting as before with speech in the air and passing onward, we come to the mechanism of the ear, then to impulses along the auditory nerve to the brain and finally to an inner activity that understands what is said. The series of events is indicated in the following scheme:

PRODUCTION OF SPEECH

Inner activity	→	Brain	→	Motor nerves	→	Speech organs	→	Mass movements of air	→	Vibrations of air

Each of the events in this series consists of the activity of a system of speech. The nature of the activity often changes from system to system. This is indicated in the neghboring Table.

RECEPTION OF SPEECH

Vibrations of air	→	Organ of hearing	→	Acoustic nerve	→	Brain	→	Inner activity

[75] Among Lodge's many discussions of Webster's rhetorical preparation and technique, the following are most helpful: 19-20, 40, 49, 54, 55, 56, 57, 60-61, 85, 91, 98, 106, 120, 143, 174, 180-204, 238, 239-240, 258-259, 268, 301, 325, 327, 329, 348-353.

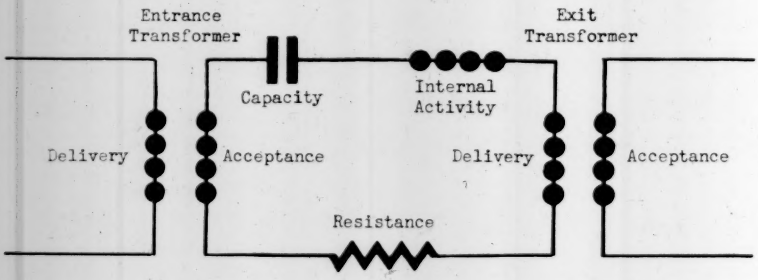
SYSTEM OF SPEECH	NATURE OF ACTIVITY
Inner activity	?
Brain, motor and acoustic nerves	Biochemical or biomechanical or bioelectrical activity
Speech organs and organ of hearing	Mechanical movements
Mass movements of air	Mechanical movements of masses of air
Vibrations of air	Vibratory movements of particles of air

A speech system is a mechanism for receiving energy, working it over, storing some of it and passing some of it onward. The mechanism for passing energy from one system to another is termed a *transformer,* because it changes the character or condition of the energy passed. The transformer has two parts: the mechanism of *delivery* from the one system, and the mechanism of *acceptance* by the other one. A system can accept energy only up to a certain amount; this is termed its *capacity.* The accepted energy is manipulated by the *internal activity* of the system. This may annihilate (choke) the accepted energy, or may vary the amount passed on, even increasing it by energy received from some other system. There is always more or less *resistance* to the passage of energy, owing to the structure of the system. The energy that is passed out goes through one or more transformers.

As an illustration of the application of these concepts to speech activity, we may take the case of a conscious effort to repeat a sound of a foreign language. All parts of the inner activity up to the threshold of consciousness we lump into one system that we term the subconscious mind. At the entrance to consciousness the impulse to speak is transformed from a subconscious one to a conscious one. The capacity for receiving it depends on the condition of consciousness in respect to attentiveness, liveliness, willingness, etc. Knowledge of similar but slightly different sounds, mistaken notions concerning the sound itself, etc., are causes of resistance. The inner mechanism of conscious attention, understanding and will prepare the impulse that passes into the exit transformer. This changes it into brain activity. Part of the result of the inner working, however, is retained and goes to form memories and habits.

Another example may be taken from the history of language. In the development of a language there is a constant conflict among words. Which words survive depends on the conditions of acceptance, capacity, inner activity, resistance and delivery in the groups of

speakers. In Middle English the word *porc,* brought over by the Norman conquerors, came into conflict with the native English word *swin.* For the speech in the castles, the entrance transformer was the contact between nobles and commoners. The capacity for the Norman word *porc* was large and that for the English word *swin* was practically zero. The resistance for *porc* was small and for *swin* large.



The inner mechanism of intercourse between the two classes accepted *porc* and rejected *swin.* The exit transformer was the passage from the intercourse of the castles into the language growing up on English soil. Outside the castles the pig was in Saxon surroundings; the conditions were exactly reversed, and the animal could have no other name than *swin.* When the two languages were fused into Middle English, the conflict had the result that *porc* remained the term for the animal in its relation to where it was mainly consumed, namely, among the Normans, and *swin* remained the term for it while alive among the Saxons. The victory of *swin* as a term for the living animal was shared by another word of unknown origin. The word *swin* had the weakness of being the same for both singular and plural. For some unknown reason *pigge* became the more acceptable term for the singular and *swin* for the plural. Today the English farmer speaks of one, two or more pigs, but of a herd of swine; he does not talk of pig-keeper but of a swineherd. He would not speak of a single swine. When the swine of a herd are slaughtered they become individual pigs again. For eating they are sold under the Norman term pork.

THE PSYCHOLOGY OF STAGE FRIGHT

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NO FIELD of education deals more directly with the organism in action than the field of speech. The intimate relationship between speech and personality has long been recognized. Yet too frequently teachers of speech tend to treat the important problems arising from this relationship without recourse to the expert advice of those who have specialized in the study of human behavior. To be sure, many writers of textbooks in the field of speech have sound backgrounds in psychology and what they write is carefully done in the light of the best psychological information; but the teacher of speech is not always informed in these backgrounds and can only infer them from what is written in the texts.

In no field of speech problems is this more evident than in stage fright. Some of the textbook writers ignore the problem altogether. Others give it a paragraph or two. The only exhaustive treatment of the subject which has come to the writer's attention is found in the new text by Sarett and Foster,[1] although other good treatments are found in Woolbert;[2] O'Neill and Weaver;[3] Hollister;[4] Winans,[5] and others. A treatment at some length is found in Hollingworth.[6] This discussion is helpful from a descriptive point of view, but it is based largely upon old psychological information and psycho-analysis rather than upon modern experimental data.

The problem of this paper is to attempt to analyze some of the recent investigations of psychology in the field of emotion and to evaluate them in terms of what they may mean to the teacher of speech in dealing with stage fright and other speech emotions.

Unfortunately for our purpose, the psychologists themselves have not yet fully agreed on a definition or explanation of emotion. Some of this difficulty appears to be due not so much to differences about the facts as to differences in the delimitation of the field to be studied.

[1] Lew Sarrett and William T. Foster, *Basic Principles of Speech* (Houghton, Mifflin, 1936).

[2] C. H. Woolbert, *Fundamentals of Speech* (Harper and Bros., 1927).

[3] James M. O'Neill and Andrew T. Weaver, *The Elements of Speech* (Longmans, Green and Co., 1926).

[4] Richard Hollister, *Speech Making* (George Wahr, Ann Arbor, 1918).

[5] James A. Winans, *Public Speaking* (Century Co., 1915).

[6] H. L. Hollingworth, *The Psychology of the Audience* (American Book Co., 1935).

Thus it is not always clear whether the writers in the field are discussing the physiological changes in the visceral organs, the somatic changes, the conscious component, or all three. Neither is it always clear whether they regard the emotions as of similar or of different origin. Dashiell[7] draws the conclusion that "man is not born with definite patternings of his visceral responses worthy of being called distinct emotions." With the writers who have done the most experimental work in the study of emotion, however, the term has come to mean largely the strong emotions, fear, rage and general excitement in their various manifestations. With this group certain fairly definite concepts have arisen which are helpful in the present study.

1. *The physiological picture differs little in fear, rage, excitement, or vigorous physical action. The principal chemical agent in this picture is adrenalin,* although Rahm and Camp,[8] Heyer,[9] Sawyer and Brown,[10] Whittkower and associates,[11] Segal and associates[12] and others found evidence of thyroid activity in emotion. The importance of the discovery that adrenalin is secreted extensively in vigorous physical action and to some extent in any physical activity (Cannon and Britton[13]), should be kept in mind as their work will be referred to later in this paper.

2. *Adrenalin alone, or adrenalin and thyroxin together, while they may produce all of the physiological changes common in emotion, do not produce the conscious states known to emotion except in rare instances.* Cantril and Hunt[14] report their results as follows:

> A cold emotion may be aroused, but *the lack of any object or reason for the emotion usually deprives it of its genuineness.* [Italics mine]. In a few cases, however, the injection of adrenalin with its subsequent bodily symptoms is adequate to produce a genuine emotion; the mere bodily concomitants are sufficient for an emotional state without the presence of any object or reason.

[7] J. F. Dashiell, "Are There Any Native Emotions?" *Psychol. Rev.*, Vol. 35 (1928), 19-327.

[8] Cited by H. F. Dunbar, *Emotions and Bodily Changes* (Columbia University Press, 1935), 157.

[9] Cited by H. F. Dunbar, *op. cit.*, 151.

[10] M. E. McKay Sawyer and M. G. Brown, "The Effect of Thyroidectomy and Thyroxine on the Response of the Denervated Heart to Injected and Secreted Adrenin," *Am. J. Physiol.*, 110 (1934-1935), 620-635.

[11] Cited by H. F. Dunbar, *op. cit.*, 160.

[12] Harry L. Segal, Herbert F. Binswanger, and Soloman Strouse, "The Effect of Emotion on Basal Metabolism," *Arch. of Int. Med.*, 41 (1928), 834.

[13] W. B. Cannon and S. W. Britton, "Studies on the Conditions of Activity in Endocrine Glands," No. XX, *Am. J. Physiol.*, 79 (1926-1927), 433-465.

[14] Hadley Cantril and William A. Hunt, "Emotional Effects Produced by the Injection of Adrenalin," *Am. J. Psychol.*, 44 (1932), 300-307.

Similar results are reported by Landis and Hunt [15] and by Shargorodsky.[16] From this we may assume that the mere presence of adrenalin in the blood stream does not ordinarily explain that form of behavior known as emotion. Elaborating on this theme, Cantril and Hunt [17] suggest an analysis of the conscious emotional state as follows:

1. *A primary autonomic reaction* centered in the autonomic nervous system and involving changes in the vaso-motor system, the respiratory system, the viscera, and certain peripheral changes such as sweating and muscular tremor.
2. *Secondary behavioral reaction patterns,* both instinctive and learned, dependent upon the cerebro-spinal nervous system. This includes such reactions as flight, attack, facial expression, and vocalization.
3. *An intellectual content.* By this we mean the presence in consciousness of some object or situation to which the emotion is directed and around which the emotion is intellectually organized. This involves the active participation of the higher logical processes, probably centered in the cerebral cortex.

The usual emotional state seems to involve a combination of (*1*) and (*3*). However, as the only criterion we have of a conscious emotional state is the subject's acceptance of it as such, the writers believe, on the basis of their results, that (*1*) is the only *sine qua non* for an emotion, for it may in some cases suffice itself to produce the emotional state. However, such cases are rare.

3. *The physiological changes produced in the body at critical moments are of such a nature as to contribute to the efficient use of muscles, to cause an increase in the available* energy and to protect the body against loss of blood. Originally proposed by Cannon, this doctrine has been elaborated in the light of more recent discoveries by Cannon and Britton.[18]

The essentials of the theory were that the changes wrought in the organism at critical moments—the shifts in the circulating blood, the hyperglycemia, the dilated bronchioles, the more rapid heart beat, the flush of adrenalin—were favorable to highest efficiency in supreme muscular exertion. That all these changes may occur to some small degree, even when an animal rises from repose and moves about in a simple and ordinary manner, indicates that what takes place on a large scale in emergencies takes place on a small scale in the common behavior of the organism . . . That being assumed, therefore, the emergency theory would have to be altered insofar as it might imply that the sympathico-adrenal mechanism is called into action only at times of violent emo-

[15] Carney Landis and William A. Hunt, "Adrenalin and Emotion," *Phychol Rev.,* 39 (1932), 567-585.

[16] A. Yarmolenko, Abstract of S. Shargordodsky, "Peculiarities of Psychic Reactions to Adrenalin of Neurotics," from *Sovetsk, Neuropatol.,* 3 (1934), No. 1, 33-34, in *Phychol. Abstracts,* 9 (1935), No. 548.

[17] Hadley Cantril and William A. Hunt, *op. cit., loc. cit.*

[18] W. B. Cannon and S. W. Britton, "Studies on The Conditions of Activity in Endocrine Glands," No. XX, *Am. J. Physiol,* 79 (1926-1927), 433-465.

tion. According to the evidence now in hand, the greater the emergency, as measured by intensity of excitement and struggle, the more is that mechanism utilized.

4. *The organization of emotional responses takes place on a subcortical level,* probably in the thalamus. The evidence for this statement is found in the work of Cannon and his associates in the Harvard Physiological Laboratories, notably the work of Bard.[19] It was found that the removal of the cortex in cats just above the diencephalic level results in a sort of sham rage. He says:

> The excessiveness of the activity as well as its easy elicitation give it the appearance of a "release phenomenon." Thus it might be explained on the basis of the view first advanced by Hughlings Jackson and elaborated by Head to the effect that the cortex normally holds in check those activities of the lower and more archaic centers which would seriously interfere with its more discriminative reactions. The expression of emotional excitement is just this sort of activity and in the case of chronically decorticate animals, release from corticate control must be the chief if not the sole factor in producing the tendency to react excessively.

5. *The degree of integration of behavior under emotional stimulation varies widely.* A brief statement of some of the recent findings on this subject will serve to illustrate. Burke[20] sums up the situation thus:

> It seems obvious that for most purposes of our present life the physical response to the danger situation is a complete anacronism. Crile gives the picture of the business man who sits at his desk and reads on his tape machine how his stocks are falling, so that he is faced with financial ruin. This man is afraid, and he is thrown into the physical state that is the only way in which we can have fear. It is of no use to him, however, that these changes should take place. His heart may bleed, in a figurative sense, but decreased clotting time will not help him. He may want to be up and doing, but his muscles will not need the extra sugar for their labor . . . Just as worry or fright will produce white hair and a wrinkled face, which are physical changes, so may a disordered mind, through emotional disturbances, produce disorder which may become a matter of importance in itself.

Patrick[21] presents evidence to show that human beings when presented with an emotional stimulus "showed a definite increase in excess activity. This would seem to establish just what one observes in

[19] Philip Bard, "A Diencephalic Mechanism for the Expression of Rage," *Am. J. of Physiol.*, 84 (1928), 490-513.

[20] Cited by H. F. Dunbar, *op. cit.*, 74.

[21] James R. Patrick, "Studies in Rational Behavior and Emotional Excitement, II," and "The Effect of Emotional Excitement on Rational Behavior in Human Subjects," *J. Gen. Psychol.* 18 (1934), 153-195.

the nature of 'random,' 'useless,' 'repetitious' responses (both verbal and overt) in the behavior of those about us when they are disturbed and excited due to some mixup in every day life."

In seeking an explanation for disturbance of ideational activity by emotional situations, McKinney [22] suggests that "the individual is energized and impulsive; he finds it more difficult to represent his activity ideationally than to make the muscular responses which vital processes prepare him to execute."

Dockeray [23] contends that the primary feature of emotion is disorganized response, general in nature.

> In this sense, emotion may be considered as the opposite of attentive or organized behavior. There are segments of the total behavior which are highly organized, such as certain glandular and visceral reactions; but the total picture is that of disorganization. *A fear reaction may be highly organized and hence unemotional, or it may be typically emotional or disorganized.* (Italics mine).
>
> Investigations of emotions reveal changes in breathing, blood pressure, visceral reactions (not visceral disturbances) which are found to accompany any other type of activity which is equally vigorous. Cannon's emergency reactions are best described as adjustment reactions which are undoubtedly found to occur in Excitement," *Psychol. Rev.*, 35, 351-366.

The point of view expressed in the italicized portion above appears to the writer to be highly important. It would appear from this that one could have all the physiological characteristics of fear without being afraid, provided the response were organized. To the writer, it appears that this is an unwarranted restriction upon the meaning of the term emotion, but the idea expressed indicates the close relationship between integrated and unintegrated responses.

It is a frequently reported phenomenon in excitement that as soon as some overt response is given, the sensation of excitement disappears. Husband [24] made a study of twenty-five varsity athletes in many branches of sport who were asked to describe their emotions occurring just before competition. Most common physiological symptoms were: frequent urination, hollow feeling in the stomach, rapid heart beat, and dry mouth. Excitement commonly developed during the day of the contest or started the previous day, increased up to its start, and then promptly vanished, the dominantly unpleasant feel-

[22] Fred McKinney, "Certain Emotional Factors in Learning and Efficiency," *J. Gen. Psychol.*, 9 (1933), 101-116.

[23] Floyd C. Dockeray, "Emotion as Disorganized Response," *Psychol. Bull.*, 30 (1933), 620.

[24] R. W. Husband, "A Study of the Emotion of Excitement," *J. Gen. Psychol.*, 46 (1935), 465-470.

ing-tone altering to pleasant. These results are very similar to the reports of students observed by Lomas [25] in the speech situation. This would seem to indicate a change in organization of the response.

At least one investigator, Stratton,[26] argues that emotion suggests a rather highly organized and integrated pattern. Basing his argument primarily on two incidents, he states:

Excitement and emotion generally are not primarily and usually causes of inadequacy, or reactions which reduce one's adequacy. They rather usually are reactions which increase our adequacy; they supplement our routine modes of response which at the moment appear inadequate. They may arise when calm action *seems* inadequate, indeed when it actually *is* inadequate. But the emotion itself normally . . . helps us on toward a condition in which we are more nearly equal to the occasion.

Drawing a clue from Bard, Darrow [27] argues that emotion is

functional decortication or "excortication" . . . The non-voluntary and relatively automatic character of the activity in extreme emotion is a matter of common observation. In extreme emotion the individual does things which he is entirely at a loss to explain later. He may, as it were, appear merely as a bystander astonished at his own behavior. Overaction characterizes his movements . . . Inco-ordination . . . may appear . . . Skills may be lost.

The diversity of the evidence suggested thus far makes particularly interesting the work of Acqua.[28] The examination of the influence of emotional states on the superior cortical functions by means of several psychometric tests revealed three types of subjects: in the first type, the least numerous, emotion increases the senso-perceptive forces; in the second type, emotion diminishes some mental processes and augments others; in the third type, emotion is so exaggerated as to render the subject unsuited to the profession of pilot for which the tests were devised.

As a final statement of the point of view developed above, the conclusions of Hodge are valuable.[29]

Emotion is aroused whenever the higher centers of the brain fail to find a fitting response to the perceived situation or when a doubt is aroused as to our

[25] Charles W. Lomas, *A Study of Stage Fright Through Students' Reactions to the Speech Situation* (1934), Northwestern University Master of Arts Thesis (unpublished).

[26] George M. Stratton, "The Function of Emotion as Shown Particularly in Excitement," *Psychol. Rev.*, 35, 351-366.

[27] Charles W. Darrow, "Emotion as Functional Decortication: the Rôle of Conflict," *Psychol. Rev.*, 42 (1935), 566-578.

[28] R. Calebresi, Abstract of M. Acqua, "Examination of Emotion in Aviation Applicants," *Psychol. Abstracts*, 8 (1934), No. 884.

[29] Frederick A. Hodge, "The Emotions in a New Role," *Psychol. Rev.*, 42, 555-565.

ability successfully to respond to it . . . *Emotional reactions are inversely proportional to the ability of the higher centers of the brain to meet a given situation.*

It is well to keep in mind here that most of the quoted writers in dealing with emotion are discussing the conscious state rather than the physiological condition as outlined in the distinctions given by Cantril and Hunt above. Most important, however, is the wide variation in the descriptions of the emotional state, varying from complete disintegration to a high degree of integration. The work of Acqua suggests that such differences may well exist between individuals, while that of Dockeray suggests a wide variation of integration within a single individual under various emotional stimuli. This variation is highly significant in any study of stage fright.

It is the contention of this paper that *stage fright does not differ in chemical or visceral components from the strong emotions characteristic of vigorous and effective speech.* The writer believes that the discussion of emotion given in the preceding pages supports this point of view. Primarily this view is dependent upon the findings of Cannon and his associates. They found that adrenalin is the key factor from a physiological point of view in all the strong emotions and in vigorous activity. They found in the second place that adrenalin could be secreted by action even in the absence of emotion. Coupled with the work of Cantril and Hunt, Landis and Hunt, and others with injected adrenalin, the findings of Cannon, *et al,* demonstrate that while the presence of adrenalin with its characteristic physiological changes is typical of these states, it cannot cause them, except in rare instances. Further evidence for the presence of the characteristic chemical pattern in vigorous speech is found in the common knowledge that public speech inhibits the digestive processes, a known function of adrenalin. Similarly Dashiell pointed out that there are no visceral patterns characteristic of distinct emotions.

It is, however, a recognized fact that the total picture in stage fright and in vigorous speech is very different. Hence, we must look for an explanation elsewhere. In a recent experiment with high school students in the speech situation, Lomas [30] found that reactions tended to be divided into three types: those in which no stage fright was present, those in which fear responses appeared before the speech, but vanished after the speech began, and those whose fear reactions became definitely worse as the speech progressed. This division corresponds roughly to Acqua's tests of aviators mentioned

[30] Charles W. Lomas, *op. cit.*

above. Of the three groups, the best speaking (by a small margin) was done by the middle group, while the last group was noticeably poorer than either of the others.

The theory of cortical control as the key to emotional reaction seems to fit the speech situation. It would seem, however, that it is necessary to amend this theory by making clear that by cortical control we mean not the control of the physiological symptoms of emotion which are present in vigorous speech as well as in stage fright (we do not wish to control these), but the conscious component as described by Cantril and Hunt. Thus Cannon [31] says, "Just as the cortex cannot cause, so likewise it cannot prevent those stormy processes of the thalamus that increase the blood sugar, accelerate the heart, stop digestion, or produce the other disturbances characteristic of great excitement." But the cortex can control, at least to some degree the integration of the voluntary activities. Thus those investigators who found integration increased by emotion are dealing with cortical control. Wheeler [32] suggests that "tensions arise when goal activities are thwarted." To borrow a term from the Gestaltist, when the configuration is broken, aimless but highly vigorous activity results. In speech we call this stage fright, but it differs from other speech emotions only in the degree of integration toward a definite goal.

With this point of view before us, the question arises as to what treatment the teacher shall follow. We shall consider here some of the major theories which have been suggested.

1. *The vigorous action theory.* This theory has its basis in the early work of Cannon, and assumes that the chemical condition responsible for the emotion can be worked off. The later work of Cannon, however, shows that the opposite is true, that the chemical concentration actually is increased, or at best maintained, by vigorous activity. Further, we have demonstrated that the chemical composition of the blood with its visceral accompaniments is not responsible, except in rare instances, for the condition of stage fright. Moreover, in such cases, vigorous action would complicate the problem rather than alleviate it. If the suggestion has merit, it lies in directing the activity toward a definite goal. If the vigorous action is developed as a means of carrying a message, it undoubtedly will help to assert cortical control and divert the emotion to its proper useful purpose.

[31] W. B. Cannon, "The Mechanism of Emotional Disturbance of Bodily Functions," *N. E. J. of Med.*, 198 (1928), 877-884.

[32] Raymond H. Wheeler, *The Science of Psychology*, Thomas Y. Crowell Co. (1929).

2. *The shift-of-attention theory.* This theory argues that it is possible to master the stage fright situation by handling objects on the stage, taking deep breaths, walking, etc., most of the suggestions being at least partially extraneous to the speech situation. These suggestions also will undoubtedly help to master stage fright, but they do not seem to the writer to be helpful solutions to the problem of developing good speech. They are developing cortical control and integration of activity toward a goal, but the goal is not the one of presenting the message of the speech. Nothing is gained by elimination of stage fright if the resultant product is dull, indirect, or aimless in development.

3. *The have-a-message theory.* It is a fact recognized by most teachers of speech that inadequate preparation is a frequent cause of stage fright. This theory cares adequately for such cases. History is full of examples of inarticulate men who became speakers by having a message to portray. Moses was said to be slow of speech, the twelve disciples were unprepossessing enough, Joan of Arc was a simple peasant girl, Samuel Adams was a failure at everything except fomenting revolution, and Booker T. Washington's background did not forecast the orator. Every teacher of speech can cite instances of students who were complete failures until a particular topic caught their fancy and aroused lagging interest. This method suggests the theory of cortical control at its best, and should be the goal of every teacher of speech. The integration of emotional activity toward the definite goal of carrying a message to an audience is likely to offer a solution of the problem. With this, of course, will have to come a refinement of the technique of speaking, which in itself is further integration toward the desired goal.

Unfortunately there are many complicating factors in the problem. It has long been recognized that hyper-thyroid individuals are more sensitive to emotional stimulation than other individuals. Reference was made early in this paper to the investigations on this point. There is also some evidence that frequency of disease in early life may have some relationship to emotionalism. Stratton [33] found that persons with disease history were more apt to respond to emotional situations than those free from disease. Where serious illness fell between the ages of eleven and fifteen, fear responses were particularly strong. In stubborn cases of stage fright, therefore, the teacher of speech might well consult the physician or nurse.

Those who read an article of this kind expecting to find an exact

[33] Cited by H. F. Dunbar, *op. cit.*, 73.

prescription for treatment of stage fright will be disappointed not to find the solution more definite. The field is too new, however, and the data compiled by the psychologists too limited as yet to permit of this manner of treatment. Only further investigation of the field by both psychologists and teachers of speech can fully solve the problem.

THE DRAMA IN HIGH SCHOOL DRAMATICS

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DRAMATICS as an accredited subject in high school is rapidly gaining prestige. From a humble beginning it has attained in many progressive secondary schools an academic respectability equal to that of the traditional subjects. Naturally we who have long held that an orally interpretative study of great literature may be an appreciable influence in personality development are well pleased. We have a right to be. In a few years we have come quite a distance, and the educational quality of courses in the speech arts has been measurably enhanced. But as one teacher, I find that my enthusiasm over our achievement is severely bounded by the problems which still beset the realization of our ideal. The most pressing of these problems is that of insuring a substantial literary background for the oral activities we direct. Otherwise stated, it is the problem of putting the drama adequately into dramatics.

At present there is a general effort among dramatics teachers to achieve a broad purpose with what seems to be too narrow a method. With one of the most ambitious ultimate aims of any teaching group, we are approaching our task with some of the most uncritically empirical procedures to be found in all education. In fact, the non-elect observing our procedures in dramatics classes would never suspect that we had such grandiose designs upon the personalities of our students. We appear to be working hard and in a pragmatic way to attain certain immediate and very practical ends; and some of our students give unmistakable evidence of progress toward what one would take to be quite specific cultures of the voice, the torso, and the arms and legs. But if much dramatics technic makes a favorable impression, it is either because the observer is ignorant of our general ideal and hence cannot check our methods against it, or because he approves our means as containing more realizable virtue than our ends. As a matter of fact, though, our aim of providing in one course a

discipline and culture of the personality of the student as a unit is not quixotic, it is not unattainable, and it is as an educational ideal older than any school now existing on earth. It is only when one contemplates our catholic motive in the presence of our restricted and rather mechanical method that the former assumes the character of a wholly chimerical purpose.

Why are our methods no more liberal? Why do we confine our efforts to the culture of mere facets of the personality when our ideal calls for procedures that will modify the essential character of the learner? There are several factors tending to constrict our method. The first is the factor of our own inertia, which unfortunately we may indulge with impunity or even, so far as the school or general public is concerned, with encouragement. Our ideal sets for us a Herculean task. And the worst of it is that we may perform it very incompletely and no one the wiser. Exhibits of our work will not reveal the extent or character of growth that resulted from the preparation of our plays or oral reading programs.

It is practically impossible for the casual observer, even though he be well informed about the intent of speech arts courses, to judge from appearances the educational effect of most dramatics projects. The girl who with such apparent self-mastery and artistic sureness reads a long monologue from Tolstoy's *Anna Karenina* may or may not have read the novel in its entirety and hence may understand what she is doing and emphasize valuably to herself the experiences of the story, or may, unconscious of the ethical and esthetic burden of the characterization, capitalize a native flair for imitation to the end that she achieves an impressive, perhaps, but altogether spurious success in her project. The boy who is well coached may be mechanically acceptable or even extraordinary as Jean Valjean of *Les Miserables* or Dr. Stockman of *The Enemy of the People;* but does he know Hugo's masterpiece from beginning to end or understand the social and moral implication of the Ibsen play? Or has he merely selected, or been assigned, dramatic passages from these works about which in general he knows nothing? The answer decides the educational significance of the exercise. The casual witness to his performance may easily be mistaken. Only the instructor knows the extent to which his undertaking has brought about an immersion in new experiences emotional and intellectual, only he knows to what extent the exercise was related to the professional ideal which he affirms. This impossibility of the patrons of our plays and the visitor of our classes reading the discrepancy between our project results and our

instructional ideal has in the past enabled us to get away with murder and to hear, perhaps, as we get away, the cheers and receive the congratulations of all interested in our work. Being human, we enjoy approval and are likely to accept the public's appraisal of our work rather too uncritically. When we do this, our instruction suffers. We, largely unconsciously, no doubt, incline our activities toward the spectacular and aim at a goal considerably this side of that which in a more critical humor we would declare to be the true objective.

Popular enthusiasm in the auditorium is a heady toast. It is hard, with applause still ringing in our ears, to think about background. It is much easier to think about the spectacular possibilities of our work. If we capitulate to this humor we may shortly be found redoubling our efforts in the interest of stage accomplishments. Assignments of oral reading, impersonation, pantomime, acting, making slight provision for the acquirement of necessary background, follow in dizzying succession. The class becomes a veritable workshop in the modern sense. And as in the modern shop where quality is often sacrificed to output, and the satisfactions of craftsmanship lost, so in our classes much of the pleasure of more thorough and artistic creation is, I often suspect, sacrificed likewise.

Another cause of our failure to make dramatics as solid in substance as it is frequently brilliant in effect is a tendency, not of dramatics teachers exclusively, to defer to student attitudes to avoid a vexing problem of motivation. Students as a general proposition prefer physical activity to private reading, quiet discussion or thinking. That is one reason why they take dramatics. They often tell us this. But what they do not say is even more eloquent of what is in their hearts. "We want to go on the stage before a crowd! We want to be someone we've never been in life, to be made up, *to act!*" This is the attitude of our classes, and there is a strong tendency on our part to appease it, especially since to insist upon rather prosaic preparatory work is certain to dilute the enthusiasm of the students. We know in advance that the study of drama cannot be as romantic an adventure as the staging of plays. Even in the hands of a very superior instructor, a class discussion of Barrie as a playwright or of the principles of tragedy will be infinitely less lively than a staging of *Quality Street* or an impersonation of Antigone before she is led away to her doom. Student opinion is often good opinion and I should certainly not advise disregarding it. But it is often immature and based upon emotional predilection and prejudice. When it is so based,

we cannot afford to acquiesce in it, neither can we afford to fall back upon our authority and be arbitrary. Such situations are a challenge to our ability to devise assignments that interest while they educate, that afford opportunity for the student to realize his interest while at the same time doing something else that makes what he wants to do worth doing. This is the problem which dramatics instructors face in insuring a literary, historical and critical basis for activity in the speech arts. It is the problem of interesting the student in the whole of a subject in which he has, understandably enough, only a fractional interest.

There is still another factor in our failure to achieve the balance between literary study and stage pursuits that promises the total personality education which is the ideal of our teaching. This is a dread, perhaps born of an impatience with the chaste student-literature relationship we have observed in certain literature classes, of making our course over-academic and impractical. The result of this phobia has been that we have taught at times as though we believed literature valueless unless met through an oral activity situation. Our study of plays as composition has been altogether too abbreviated and such study as we have directed has been too largely from the point of view of dramaturgy. We need to initiate more study from the viewpoint of the social, moral, and esthetic philosopher. Unless we do, most of the rich ideational content of drama will be lost to our students. I do not, of course, mean that we should use plays as texts for sociological and moral lectures or that we should accentuate the study of thesis plays, which on the whole are the weaker ones. Neither do I mean that we should insist upon the intellectual content to a degree that may obscure the student's perception of the quintessential drama of the story or situation. What I do mean is that our tuition should point toward his appreciation of the total significance of an art of which he may otherwise comprehend only fragments. We have the word of consummate artists of the stage that a substantial background of literature and literary history is a necessary condition of distinguished acting. We have also abundant evidence that all other things being equal, richness of oral interpretation is in proportion to richness of experience. Extensive reading is the most convenient of the means of vicarious experience. Having given suitable instructions, we may trust students to gain from private reading something definitely of value to them as dramatics students and as individuals. If not all that they meet of ideology or character is fully intelligible to

them, we may be sure that this reading is never educationally meaningless in the way and to the extent that dramatic interpretation without basic experience, either actual or vicarious, is meaningless.

The problem of making outside reading a vital experience is much simplified by the study of dramatic criticism, which is an integral part of a general course in dramatics. This study, I have found, is most advantageously made by correlating it throughout the semester with outside reading and with class sessions on plays and playwrights. In fact, the less formal the study of criticism the better. Our purpose is to integrate a variety of activities contributing to the culture of the individual and to his powers of self-expression. What the student learns of criticism "on the job" of play-reviewing, he is more likely to utilize in his solution of other problems of the course. Criticism, then, we should present as a means to an end, namely of enhancing the fidelity of one's own interpretation and of enjoying the superior satisfactions of the reader or playgoer who knows something of the underlying technic of dramatic composition and of acting. If we are insistent upon the importance of thoughtful reviewing and hold it as a condition of superior rating in the class, we do not long have to put up with the "I don't know anything about art, but I know what I like" attitude that is incompatible with all principles of creation and appreciation. It is necessary, if the student's reading is to constitute a real and serviceable background for dramatics activities, that, while granting a wide freedom for subjective reaction, we hold our students to certain generally accepted criteria of good playwriting and acting. This is a discipline new to many of our students, but not, I find, a distasteful one. In fact, they are often gratified to discover definite standards for a kind of exercise that has often been a chore because the processes of literary appraisal seemed so nebulous and uncertain.

There is still another factor which has contributed to our failure to insure a thorough schooling in the literature of the theatre and to encourage a real familiarity with the great works of fiction and poetry. This is the practical difficulty of finding time to teach the drama as literature in a course which requires that we also direct plays and interpretative projects, and teach something of stage technique, make-up, scenic design, etc. I shall admit that the difficulty in this direction is considerable and is our best excuse for failure thus far to develop our course along more substantial lines. I do not think, however, that the limitation of time is an insuperable barrier to the purpose of seeing that the interpretative training of our students is

grounded upon a solid knowledge of drama. This purpose, as I see it, *must* be attained even if we have to reduce the number and scope of other activities or abbreviate our course outline for the semester or year. It is better to train thoroughly even if we must omit much to which we should like to have our classes introduced.

I shall not set down what I consider the literary minimal essentials of a dramatic course. It would be only one man's view and a view at that that is not at all constant. No one, not hopelessly mechanical or pedantic, would wish to commit himself to the teaching of certain plays in a certain order year after year. It is to the best interests of spontaneity and professional enthusiasm that we give our moods free play in deciding upon what shall be the nuclear plays or playwrights of a given semester. It is unimportant what we decide. What is important is that the student gain some understanding of the history of drama and theatrical practice and of the unit ideas that have been most influential upon the stage as an artistic and social institution. It is immaterial whether the teacher prefer the *Antigone* or the *Agamemnon* as the subject of a class reading and discussion, but I submit that it is important that the students understand the unique character of Greek tragedy, the conflict which was the heart of the drama. It does not matter to me whether the teacher best likes Shakespeare's comedies or tragedies or histories of fantasies, but I think he should make clear the individualistic philosophy of Elizabethan theatre as illustrated in the plays studied, and indicate the contrast with the fatalistic idea back of Greek plays. Rostand, Barrie or Milne will be as acceptable as Ibsen, Galsworthy or O'Neill as playwrights for chief consideration in class; but whoever the artists, the study of modern drama ought to inform the student about the principles and qualities and humors that set this art off from that of other times. I think it is highly important that the student know something of the drama of ideas other than by hearsay. A high school senior is quite old enough to meet the social and artistic ideas of *An Enemy of the People* or *Justice* or *Strife* or *The Lower Depths* or *The Adding Machine* or *Journey's End*. It is even more important to his general than to his dramatic education that he become acquainted with the passionate social conscience of a Tolstoy or the deep pessimism of a Tchekoff, the rich good humor of a Barrie or the hard stoicism of an O'Neill.

But more important still than the esthetic and social ideas which he will get through a study of plays as literature are the personalities

he will meet. Here he will be dealing not with a philosopher's interpretation of life, but with life itself, with life, in many cases, as he has not encountered it before. His acquaintance with Madam Ranevsky of Tchekoff's famous *Cherry Orchard,* Ibsen's Peer Gynt, O'Neill's extraordinary Emperor Jones, Paul Green's Abe of *In Abraham's Bosom,* Milne's Perivale who went through the Ivory door, the great and only Cyrano de Bergerac of Rostand, the stoical mother of Synge's *Riders to the Sea,* Elizabeth the Queen and Lord Essex as Maxwell Anderson depicts them, and a host of other characters good, bad and indifferent, cannot but be a tremendous education in the most important of all subjects—humanity. The more of these striking characters of drama he meets, the wider his vicarious experience with life will be, and hence the richer all his efforts in interpretation.

Besides the extensive reading of plays, I think we need to stimulate in our students a new curiosity about the great novelists. If our course has the value in inciting lively appreciation of literature that we claim it has, we should find no trouble in getting students to fill in the gaps in their reading and in exploring new areas in the world of books. Some of the finest material for monologues and dialogues and pantomimes is to be found in the fiction of the 19th and 20th centuries. Indeed, I consider the works of Hugo, Tolstoy, Dickens, Pearl Buck, Rolvaag to be as valuable sources of material as the works of the playwrights. From such sources my students annually compile a copious repertory of dramatic scenes which they cut and arrange for oral presentation. Thus with the various collections of "selected scenes and dialogues for beginning actors" now on the market they need have no traffic. Nor is there any excuse for essaying the interpretation of a character that they do not know from intimate association through an entire book. Only in this way, it seems to me, can they acquire the fundamental requisite of interpretative art which is sincerity.

We who today are teaching dramatics are building a new course and establishing a tradition therefor. Let it be a sound tradition of thorough scholarship and honest effort that will survive whatever mechanical changes in presentation the years may bring. Let us avoid superficiality at all hazards, even though we may offer an acceptable excuse for it in the court of administrative opinion. Our ideal is a practicable one. Intellectual, emotional and physical experience can be unified. Old Athenian education is abundant evidence that it can. The

modern dramatics course can be the most benign influence upon the totality of the student of any of the secondary school studies. But to be so it must be thorough.

PLAY PRODUCTION FOR PHONOGRAPHIC RECORDING

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IN JUNE of 1935, the American Foundation for the Blind, in collaboration with several members of the Department of Public Speaking of the College of the City of New York, recorded the play *Journey's End* for their *Talking Book Series*. To the best of my knowledge, this is the first time that a full-length play, in which each character is played by a different person, has been transcribed upon phonograph records.

During the recording, several problems of play production presented themselves, and since they are unique to this process, I have felt that a brief outline might be of value to others who may be interested in the field. At first sight, it may not seem that there would be any great difference between broadcast or radio play production and production for phonograph recording. However, this is not the case, and considerable experimentation had to be gone through before the technique could be determined.

In recording, as in any other form of microphonic transmission, there is involved a distortion of the natural speaking voice. Progressive improvements in the mechanical and electrical mechanisms available hold a promise that the day is not far off when this distortion will be greatly reduced if not eliminated. At the present writing, the radio presents less difficulty than recording, because the latter offers the special problems of overcoming the mechanical inertia incident to the cutting of the record for the phonograph.

In the making of a recording, two methods are in use. One is so-called "direct recording," in which a cut is made on a suitable disc and played back immediately; the other is the "indirect" or "wax pressing" method. In "direct recording" there are two principal media used: annealed aluminum and cellulose acetate. A suitable microphone and amplifier system is connected to a "cutting head," which is equipped with a "needle" or "cutter," and a disc of, say,

aluminum, is caused to revolve at constant speed under the cutter. A tracing of the sound waves, as reproduced by the microphone, is embossed rather than "cut" upon the annealed aluminum—a tracing which may be played back, by substituting a phonograph pick-up for the cutter head. In playing aluminum, which is soft, a fibre or thorn needle is used to prevent damage to the record.

When cellulose acetate is used, a needle similar to a tiny lathe tool is substituted for the embossing needle and a thin thread of material is removed from the disc as it revolves under the cutter, thus actually cutting (and not embossing) the image of the original sound wave upon the body of the acetate.

Both these methods allow for immediate playback. The quality is fairly good, especially when the record is new, but the great amount of mechanical inertia overcome by the cutter in the rather resistant material causes considerable loss in frequency, especially in the higher partials, and therefore a distortion not only of pitch but also of quality.

The wax method, which is that used in all commercial recording, and which was used in the case under discussion, is a very much more elaborate and expensive process, but it has the virtue of being more faithful in reproduction than the direct method. In this process, a disc of beeswax, with certain materials added, is polished with a sapphire knife, so that it has a mirror surface, and placed upon a heavy, functionalized, horizontal lathe. Upon this surface a delicately ground sapphire cutter is lowered, and the disc caused to revolve at constant speed. As in the previous method, the sound wave pattern is converted into electrical energy and the cutter transcribes it upon the wax surface. The wax disc is then placed in a vacuum between gold electrodes and submitted to an atomic bombardment, which makes the surface of the wax electrically conductive. The disc is then electroplated and the electroplate master stripped off the wax, further treated, and used as a stamp. This stamp is placed in a press and impressed on the material of the final record, thus reproducing the cuttings on the original wax.

The foregoing description is, of necessity, very elementary and sketchy, but sufficient, perhaps, to prepare for an understanding of the problems now to be discussed.

Let us first consider the problem of casting the play. In the beginning, this problem was approached as if a play were being cast for stage production, except that such considerations as the physique of the actors were ignored. With the tentative cast thus chosen, an

experimental aluminum cutting was made. It immediately developed that the voice qualities of two of the characters were so similar in the recording that no distinction between them could be made by the hearer. It was immediately evident that the casting must be done with the limitations of the machine in mind. The next step, therefore, was to make a series of test records for voice quality from those comprising the working group. By a comparison of these records, good recording voices, the qualities of which were distinct one from the other, were selected and the play recast accordingly.

During the time that the test records were being made, work was carried on in the preparation of the script. Here the technique is quite similar to that of preparing a play for radio. For instance, the auditor must at no time be allowed to confuse the characters appearing in a scene. This calls for not only distinct characterizations and voice differentiations, but frequent use of the characters' names. When two characters are engaged in a dialogue, it is quite safe to rely upon their personal attributes; but when three or more persons are involved, some of whom do not speak for long periods, it is necessary to direct the attention of the hearer by introducing a new speaker by his or her name. This sounds awkward, since one does not want to interrupt the flow of an author's language by the constant repetition of names, but as a matter of fact, the difficulty can be taken care of quite simply.

Another question in the preparation of the script is that of stage business and pantomime. Obviously, this must be done by means of the spoken word, aided, to some extent, by sound effects. It would be impossible in an article of this scope to discuss all of the questions of this nature which arose, but such difficulties can be overcome by the ingenuity of the individual director.

Rehearsals took the form of group readings for some time after the parts had been definitely assigned. All stage business, gesture, facial expression, and pantomime were ignored. Attention was devoted to precision of reading, subtlety of inflection, and voice quality changes indicative of specific moods.

After these rehearsals had been carried on for several complete readings, test recordings were again made with an aluminum cutter. Two things at once became apparent: first, that the tempo was too slow—lacking the visual action, the dialogue tended to drag; secondly, that a recording machine has an uncanny genius for understatement. Scenes which were emotionally intense, when heard in the physical presence of the actors, completely lacked conviction when heard

through a loudspeaker. It became necessary in the following rehearsals to "pace up" the dialogue and to overplay some of the emotional scenes, in order that contrasts and climaxes might be gained.

When these faults had been remedied, it was decided to undertake the final recording on the professional wax machines of the Foundation.

Before coming to a discussion of the making of the actual recordings, I wish to diverge into a fascinating and complicated field of recording—that of sound effects. In the play *Journey's End*, the sound effects consist, in the main, of battle imitations, and eating and drinking effects. The latter were quite simple to reproduce. Water was poured from bottles and pitchers into glasses and mugs, and knives, forks, and plates were used to create the illusion of table service. One amusing result grew out of an effect that went wrong. In one of the scenes, two men clink their glasses before drinking. This gentle click recorded like the full-throated bellow of an old-fashioned fire bell.

The first technical obstacle appeared in recording the battle scenes. Heavy bombardments were simulated by using a bass drum, helped out with RCA records of machine-gun fire, earthquake and mob effects. The bass drum was beaten in one studio while three playback turntables, operating through a three-position mixer, carried the effect records into the control room. Since the heavy notes of the bass drum, even at very low volume, produce extremely wide swings in amplitude, the recording needle tended to produce what is technically known as an "overcut." This is a condition in which the stylus swings so far that it goes beyond the limiting width of its groove and cuts into the groove following. When played back, the pick-up needle either will not track at this point (that is, stay in the groove) or a shrill, bird-like whistle will result. Excessive vocal volume has much the same effect. As I have said above, the tendency of recording is toward understatement, and since intensity of scene is important, maximum volume and amplitude were attempted, frequently with disastrous results.

In the recording studios at the Foundation, arrangements were made to use two studios simultaneously. These were located one on either side of a control room and visibility gained through plate-glass windows. The actors took up their positions in the larger studio, the sound effect men in the smaller. The monitor man had the controls of the multiple turntable within his reach, and the director stood in the control room, visible from both studios. Scripts were provided

for the monitor and the head of the sound effects division. All sound effects were executed on cues inaudible to all but the sound effect supervisor, who received them from the main control room by head phones. The sound effects were completely inaudible to the actors, who were given cues by signals from the director, when the effects themselves were cues for dialogue. Condenser microphones of the finest type available were used, because of their extremely high fidelity in the speech frequencies.

In using the microphone, it is necessary that the actor "stay put." Even a slight movement away from or toward the microphone will produce an effect of change of distance which would be highly undesirable. Characters making entrances or exits can be handled either directly, by having them walk up to or away from the given positions, or can be faded in and out by the monitor man. The latter method was not used, since it tends to produce an ethereal disappearance rather than the effect of actual movement.

Another danger in recording is that sudden dynamic changes in the lines of the play may produce an "over-cut," as explained above, or "echo," which causes a sound similar to that of a real echo, in which a line is partially repeated by the record, after the next line has begun. There are three ways in which this may be overcome: moving the actor back, reducing the volume at the monitor control, or training the actor to get intensity and volume effects without great concomitant changes in dynamics. Moving back, unless the actor is highly experienced, will tend to give an effect of movement, which will not be desirable. Using the monitor will sometimes kill the intensity of the scene, so that a special type of microphone acting is the only really satisfactory method to employ, and this takes skill and experience to develop. The best way has to be found by trial and error. However, it is better to sacrifice aluminum than wax; therefore, rehearsal recordings are essential.

In spite of every precaution, the play as recorded has many flaws and defects, but much has been learned and there is reason to hope that future work will show great improvement in this very interesting art-form.

PRACTICES CONCERNING HIGH SCHOOL PLAY CONTESTS

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HIGH SCHOOL play contests, or tournaments, as some call them, range anywhere from those sponsored among various classes and groups within a school, to those of a state-wide or inter-state nature in which scores of high schools participate. A good indication of the wide popularity of these events may be seen in the fact that, with a few exceptions, they attract a greater number of participants each succeeding year. The sponsors of one state-wide contest, which is now in its tenth year, recently announced that 600 high schools were entering this year (spring of 1936), an increase of 100 schools over those of last year. While other contests do not have as many new entries as this one, they all show an increase from one year to the next.

A majority of these contests have come into existence during the past fifteen years. Many of them are of more recent origin. The greatest growth among them has been during the past five or eight years. New contests, especially among the states of the Middle West, are being organized at the present time. Contests within the schools and among several schools of a particular neighborhood are coming into existence every day.

The writer has had a desire for some time to investigate some of the aims and practices among these play contests. Early last spring, he requested copies of the rules for a number of leading contests. Among those sponsors who replied, a few reported that no rules were available at the time. Those who replied were divided as follows: three regional contests (parts of a state), two inter-state contests, and twelve state-wide contests, several of which sponsored county and district elimination contests. Seven of them were sponsored by state universities, five by colleges, and five by educational organizations and private schools. While there are no figures available to show the number of high schools which participate in these seventeen contests, the number probably exceeds one thousand.

A survey of the contest rules reveals some rather interesting facts. The following are noteworthy:

Aims. A majority of the rules say little or nothing with respect

to the aims or objectives for holding these contests. These unfortunate omissions may be excused, perhaps, on the grounds that, in some cases at least, the aims are understood by the participants and inclusion in the rules is deemed unnecessary. Among those which do give their objectives, the following statements appear:

The object of this League is to foster among the public schools of ——— inter-school competitions as an aid in the preparation for citizenship.

The objects of the contests . . . are to develop skill in public speaking and to further interest in dramatic art. It is the desire . . . to train the greatest possible number of students in these fields, since such training will equip them for better citizenship.

The tournament is given to foster a higher appreciation in the Speech Arts and better to equip students for actual practice in life.

. . . To create a spirit of active and intelligent interest in dramatics among boys and girls of our secondary schools.

. . . Join with us in establishing this exchange of splendid mental and spiritual activity, the spoken drama.

A tournament stressing individual advancement and personality development rather than the winning of a contest.

To promote the cause of amateur dramatics in our school, community and state by the study, composition, and performance of good plays, and by discussion at stated meetings of all the arts of the theatre.

Who May Compete. While some of the rules are silent with respect to the question of eligibility, others specify that only regularly enrolled high-school students may compete. One states that "any high school of the state may compete." Another restricts contestants to those of the eleventh and twelfth grades. Several contests sponsored by interscholastic leagues or educational associations restrict their contestants to those high schools which are registered with them and which have "paid their annual membership dues." One contest is limited to those high schools which come under the jurisdiction of the state department of education. Few of the rules specify any age limit for contestants; those that do, require students to be less than twenty-one years of age. One recently limited this requirement to eighteen years of age. Only a few specify that students do creditable work in as many as three subjects.

Time and Place. March, April, and May are apparently favorite months for sponsoring high-school play contests. The rules seem to indicate that the first of May is the most widely chosen time for holding the final contests. County and district contests are generally held either in March or in April. Registration of entries begins as early as September in those states in which many schools participate. Contests are generally held in the auditoriums of high schools, colleges, and

universities. Finals are held in most cases in the institutions sponsoring the contests.

Play Entries. Requirements for one-act play contests are generally the same. One set of rules specifies that each high school present "a play of not more than one act in length and requiring not more than one set of scenery." Most of the rules require that only plays requiring one set of scenery be entered. The use of elaborate scenery, properties, and lighting effects is discouraged. Schools are generally allowed to select their own play entries. Some contests require that the entry be either a comedy or a tragedy. One contest requires that entries be limited to comedies one year and tragedies the next. The playing time of each entry is restricted to twenty to forty-five minutes. The majority require a playing time of thirty minutes. Schools are responsible for all royalty fees.

Restrictions on Entries. In several contests, plays winning first places are barred from further entry in the same event. In a few cases the winning plays are barred for only the next three or four succeeding years. One set of rules states that "plays appearing in the last state tournament are barred for one year." Another specifies that no school may enter "the same play with which it competed in this contest last year." Many of the rules state that the same play may not be entered by two schools in the same district (or finals if no district events are held). In one case "plays rating superior last year are barred from the contest this year."

Because of lack of staging facilities, one contest limits entries to the first twenty. The right to present a play is generally with the school which first enters the contest. Priority of registration is usually determined by the postmark on the entry.

Only a few of the rules place any restrictions upon the size of the cast. In two cases, the rules state that plays which require more than ten individuals in the cast will be disqualified by the judges. One requires that a play have not less than three individuals in the cast. In another instance, the use of large casts is discouraged.

Plays which require the use of a gun, pistol or any other firearm are disqualified in one contest. A wooden model painted to represent a gun is permitted, however.

Stage Properties. Generally speaking, contestants are required to furnish all small, unusual, or personal properties needed for their entries. Large properties are furnished by the school or organization sponsoring the contest. One contest specifies that "the contest directors will furnish one simple set of living room furniture," and urges

that plays requiring simple living room settings be selected. In another case, a school may provide its own lighting effects and its own plastic pieces. Another contest requires that schools furnish all properties needed for their entries. Costumes must be furnished by the contestants.

Scenery. As stated above, several of the contests discourage the use of elaborate scenery. In two instances the rules state "that no school is permitted to use any elaborate set of scenery for the purpose of effecting a greater impression upon either the judge or the audience." In a few instances plays which require a change in scenery are disqualified. One set of rules emphasizes that "this is a contest in the art of acting and directing and not in stage setting or trick lighting effects."

Several contests specify the stage background for their entries. One states that the stage is "enclosed by a gray velour curtain which serves as both exterior and interior 'sets.'" Another lists a box set, draperies and an exterior as being available and requires that "all plays must be set in these." Another contest requires that "as far as possible, all schools use a neutral-toned cycloramic curtain." Two others require that plays be given before either a set of natural-colored draperies or a plain interior setting.

In several instances schools are required to furnish the contest director with a floor plan of each entry. One requires "a diagram of stage setting showing location of doors, windows, and furniture."

One contest states that "five minutes will be allowed for taking down a set and ten for setting up, and for every minute overtime used that school shall have one point taken from its total." Another states that "if scenery is used it must be so designed as to require but ten minutes to put up and three minutes to take down."

A number of contests provide a competent crew to handle all backstage work. Some contests require a student stage manager from each of the entries. In others, the director of each competing cast must assist the crew in setting the stage.

Expenses. In most cases, competing schools are held responsible for their own traveling expenses, royalties, and all other expenses incurred by them in connection with the contest. One state contest requires that "all transportation and living expenses shall be assumed by the individual schools or members of the cast." Another specifies that "gate receipts shall be used to pay for advertising, tickets, hall, transportation of schools and a share of the traveling expenses of the judges. In another case, all competing schools are housed free of

charge by the school sponsoring the contest. One school allows five dollars to each school which is compelled to travel a distance greater than one day's auto travel.

Entrance Fee. There is much variation with respect to the entrance fee charge among these contests. In one case the entrance fee is ten dollars, with the understanding that any surplus will be refunded equally among the competing schools. In another case, competing schools are required to pay a membership fee of two dollars and a tournament fee of two dollars or three dollars. Another contest requires an entrance fee of ten dollars, for which each school is given a number of tickets to sell at twenty-five cents each. Several contests which charge an annual membership fee do not require a contest entrance fee.

Judges. Eleven of the contests employ more than one judge in determining the winners. Several of these specify three judges. This is generally true among district and regional contests. In the final contests judges are usually selected by the school or organization sponsoring the event. Four of the final contests use an expert judge. In two cases, the judge is required to give a constructive criticism of each play presented, and a copy of his comments is later sent to every school which participated in the contest. In two cases, several judges are used in the district contest and an expert judge for the finals.

In one state, an expert judge is used to judge all the district contests. The rules specify that "the judge will enter the hall unknown to the groups and, after the contest, render the decision to the host principal or his representative." Contestants are permitted to ask the judge questions after the decision is announced. This is the only state in which the judge travels from one district to another. Several contests permit contestants to ask questions after the final decisions are announced. A few of the rules require that the judges shall not compare notes until after the decisions are given.

How Plays Are Judged. There exists apparently great variation with respect to not only the items to be judged in a play contest, but also the value of each item as related to the whole. Several of the score plans are given below in full:

> One state-wide contest employs a score sheet outlined as follows:
>
> *Acting and Interpretation 50%*
>
> Team work 10%, tempo and stage business 10%, pantomime 10%, audibility and diction 10%, smoothness of play 5%, and choice of characters 5%.

Setting 30%

Arrangement of scenery and lighting effects 15%, costumes 5%, and make-up 10%.

Choice of Play 20%

Intrinsic value 10%, and effectiveness 10%.

Another state-wide contest requires that each production be judged as follows: Characterization, line reading, voice and articulation of each individual. These items are subdivided as follows: (1) choice of play, (2) cast of the play, (3) mounting of the play, (4) stage movement and business, (5) teamwork of the players, (6) tempo, (7) projection of the theme of the play, (8) projection of significant points in the plot, (9) projection of emotional contest spirit of the play, and (10) total effect of the play.

A third state-wide contest gives the following instructions with respect to the question of judging: "In rendering their decision the judges should attach the greatest importance to acting, which includes both diction and pantomime; next, they should consider the stage-craft, which includes stage setting, lighting, costuming, and properties; and lastly, the choice of the play. As an aid in rating, the following are suggested: acting 85%, choice of play 5%, and stage-craft (including stage setting, costuming, properties, lighting) 10%."

This same contest requires, furthermore, that all markings be on a scale of one hundred per cent, that no grade shall be lower than 70%, and that no judge mark any two contestants alike. Each judge ranks contestants 1, 2, 3, etc., according to the percentages given each speaker.

A contest sponsored by a well-known drama playhouse has the following definition of judging points:

1. Characterization and Interpretation 28%. This phase includes three matters:
   a. Performers staying in character throughout the play.
   b. Correctness of characterization in walk and bodily movement, in use of voice, and in reading of lines.
2. Tempo 22%. Tempo shall be considered to mean the way the play moves; *i.e.*, with smoothness, with rate well regulated for the specific play, and with sufficient variety and contrast.
3. Direction 17%. The play shall be judged for the effectiveness of the director's influence over mechanics, stage-business, balance and proportion, placing, grouping, and movement of the players on a stage.
4. Voice and Diction 22%. Two factors shall be considered:
   a. The intelligibility of the performers; *i.e.*, the audience must be able to hear and understand what is being said.
   b. The appropriate production and control of tone.
5. Make-up and Costume 11%. Make-up and costume shall be reasonably convincing, appropriate to the play and characters, and should not be judged just for beauty or effect or of absolute accuracy of detail.

A regional contest sponsored by a teachers' college makes the following outline:

Play: Choice of play, casting of play.
Acting: Characterization, interpretation, pantomime, tempo, teamwork.

Diction: Audibility of voice, purity of enunciation, and flexibility of tone.

Stage Ensemble: This does not mean scenery. It includes the general planning of the grouping, of the movement, of the stage pictures, and the location of the articles of furniture and the openings.

An inter-state contest outlines the following points on which a play should be judged: (1) Does the play create illusion? (2) Do the characters impersonate naturally? (3) Does the voice respond naturally to the character? (4) Is the costume fitting and suitable? (5) Is the action natural and spontaneous? (6) Is the play well chosen?

Among the other sets of rules which give instructions on how plays will be judged, we find the following statements: "Hamlet's advice to the players is an excellent guide in judging acting." "In considering the 'choice of the play,' the judge is instructed so to grade this item as to give a distinct advantage to casts which choose a play of intrinsic merit and one suited to production by high school groups." "The plays for the finals will be selected on the basis of fine acting and not on settings." "The plays shall be judged on two points: play selection 25%, and acting 75%." "Acting and general spirit will be considered rather than setting, etc." "Plays shall be judged on casting and acting only."

Awards. In general, the awards for the schools winning first place, as well as for contestants winning first places in acting, are about the same. Eleven of the contests award trophies to schools taking first honors. In one case, a certificate or ribbon is given. Prizes for contestants placing on the all-state cast, for best acting, consists of medals, scholarships, or both. In one case, runners-up receive a cash prize of five dollars. In another contest, the school winning first place is awarded stage equipment. Scholarship awards run from fifty to one hundred dollars each.

In concluding this article, I have no desire to offer the customary conclusions which follow a survey, for this one is graced with neither the thoroughness of research nor the inclusiveness which justifies such a step. I do wish to mention, however, two matters about which I am seriously concerned.

First, I believe those who sponsor play contests should be much more specific about the aims or objectives for these events. Obviously, the aims are those of interesting high school students in the production of better plays and in creating a better understanding for dramatics in general. The public at large, and contestants in particular, should know, however, the educational values of these events. What-

ever aims or objectives are established are sufficiently important to warrant inclusion in the rules of the game.

There is another reason why a written statement of the aims of these contests is necessary, it seems to me. There is a rumor out that the only real purpose for sponsoring contests is that of attracting more students to the schools which sponsor them. In other words, they are regarded as clever schemes for enlarging the school enrollment. If for no other reason than that of protecting those contests which are trying to arouse a greater interest for dramatics, all sponsors should see that the aims are clearly stated.

A second matter which I believe needs further clarification is that pertaining to the plans used for judging these contests. Would it not be for the best interests of all concerned if a more uniform plan of judging plays should be evolved? Perhaps the sponsors of the leading play contests in the country should exchange score sheets and work out a plan of judging which would not only be more uniform, but place the proper emphasis upon the educational values contests of this type possess. A committee to study this matter would be a worthwhile project for the NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF SPEECH.

THE DIRECTOR'S PART IN THE VERSE SPEAKING CHOIR

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MEANING or purpose is fundamental in interpreting verse, as it must be in all appreciation. Without understanding, speech sounds are no longer symbols of thought, bodily expressions are merely grimaces, and verse reading becomes artificial and injurious.

Note.—For some time the authors of this article have been gathering information for a national directory of all those in charge of choral speaking activities. In addition to the names of the leaders and schools, special data is being collected, such as lists of poems, types of verse choirs, rhythmic movement, staging, size of groups, rôle of the leader, dramatization and evaluation of results. Letters may be addressed to Richard B. Lewis, Glendale Junior College, Glendale, California.

The dull drone of the unpopular group recitation was an example of student choral speaking which was not concerned with the communication of thought and feeling.

When the director comes before the group to begin rehearsal and study, the purposes and quality of the work are determined at the outset. Technique can easily become more important than content. The sensuous appeal in rich, vibrant voices may cause the choir to exploit tone rather than to communicate the thought and feeling that is in the poem. Formal, outward display can easily take the place of sincerity. When this happens, degeneration in the attitude toward the choir work soon destroys the appreciation of poetry. The director and his group must be alive, spontaneous, honest—intent on appreciation for themselves and their audience. To read solely for effect is to falsify literary values. Poetry, as Robert Frost phrases the thought, should not be "read too beautifully."

There are varying points of view on methods of beginning choral work. Miss Elizabeth Keppie[1] and Miss Marjorie Gullan[2] begin by reading the poem to the group. They follow this reading with a general discusson. Miss Virginia Sanderson[3] asked her students to read the poem silently several times before beginning group discussion. Then they worked out the details of interpretation in broad outline before any collective reading took place; during the later rehearsals, further study and discussion were used to improve the interpretation. There are many advantages in this use of the general discussion to build up the interpretation of the poem.

Although the group should be led to evolve the interpretation to be used, there are times when a comment from the director is necessary to clarify some obscure point or to crystallize the suggestions from the members into a practical method of procedure. To be prepared for such an occasion, the director should analyze each poem thoroughly and make exact notes. But this preparation should be utilized to help the group solve its problems, rather than to give directions. Otherwise the group, or some of the members, will imitate the reading of the teacher and be unable to give their own free interpretation.

The director is in the position of chairman of a panel through

[1] Elizabeth E. Keppie, *The Teaching of Choral Speech* (Expression Company, Boston, 1935).

[2] Marjorie Gullan, *Choral Speaking* (Expression Company, Boston, 1934).

[3] Virginia Sanderson, "The Verse Speaking Choir," in *Progressive Education*, Vol. 8, January, 1931.

whose experience the choir finds its way to a synthesis which fuses the finest appreciation of every individual member into one complete group experience. Here is the opportunity for the director to demonstrate the superiority of the product of group thinking over the dictatorship of a minority. The creative teacher will lead each individual to contribute the best expression of his personality to the choir and the audience in the interest of the entire group.

Whether or not the director should conduct the choir in the manner of music directors is sometimes debated. In her article, Evelyn K. Abraham[4] advocates such direction to "realize the atmosphere of the poem." In the opinion of others, the leader, standing before a choir to conduct it, prevents free interpretation controlled by group understanding; the leader imposes his interpretation upon the group and verse reading becomes a technical trick.

The dictator type of director prefers an imitative choir. He sets the pattern and estimates results in terms of faithful copies. The members of his group are automatons—but so many pipes in an organ through which he may blow. Few directors care to face the issue stated so bluntly, but whether recognized or not, the question of reshaping life through creative, co-operating personalities is implicit whenever the verse choir meets.

Learning the Poem

Many students trace their dislike of poetry to the Friday afternoon recitation of some ten to fifty lines of assigned verse. One advantage of choral speaking which appeals to students of any age is the elimination of mechanical memorization. The choir has a great advantage at the start, particularly when the material is the students' own choice. By reading the poem several times silently, and by following this reading with a general discussion of the possible interpretations, the choir members quickly become thoroughly familiar with the poem. In the early stages, rehearsals can be carried on with the mimeographed or written words in hand, or the poem can be written on the blackboard if action demands that the hands be free. Gradually, without effort, the poem becomes a part of the student. Self-consciousness, brought on by loss of memory while reciting solo, cannot develop; if the speaker forgets, someone else always remembers, and the poem goes on without a break. The speaker has not only one prompter, but twelve or more, reading along with him. Poetry

[4] Evelyn K. Abraham, "The Danger of Choral Speech," in *Good Speech*, Vol. 4, No. 26 (Jan. to Mar., 1935).

learned in this way is retained, and recalling the verses is easy and pleasant.

Should there be a "leader voice"? At first, writes Miss Gullan. However, it is our experience that this technique should be used only in rehearsal, if at all; there is too much possibility that the interpretation may be imitated; also there is a tendency for each student to try to outspeak others by increasing his volume.

Some conductors start the choir as a unit by serving as a leading voice. Other leaders use the tinkle of a tiny bell. Some groups, after speaking as a unit for some time, are able to start a poem through a "group feeling," an ability not so mystical as it sounds; timing becomes automatic to the practiced student. One of the best methods for starting a group that is new to choir work is for the director to raise and lower his hand; the lifting of the hand is a warning which suggests a deep breath; the drop of the hand starts the speaking.

Soon all will catch the idea of adjusting to group tempo and pause. Gradually the group can be initiated into unison participation, while preserving individual responsibility by using refrain lines. But, considerable experience should be allowed before unison speaking is attempted, so that the whole group can learn to interpret the poem accurately.

> If many people are to speak together as one, there must be delicacy and precision of articulation, resonance, range and flexibility of tone, and perfect timing and tuning.[5]

It is progressive study that takes the student from where he is in speech ability and poetry appreciation, through increasingly difficult poetry and speech technique, to unison speaking. Unison speaking is the final step in choral interpretation; it requires the highest degree of efficiency in the techniques of speaking: the purely physical abilities of enunciation, rhythm, and tone production. Unison speaking demands of the speaker the ability to gather the finest shades of meaning of the writer, put them through his mental assimilation machinery, then vocally and physically express them. He must do these things while co-operating with the rest of the group in rhythm, in tempo, in pauses, in pronunciation, in phrasing, yet he must retain his individuality in pitch, in inflection, in tone, in emphasis, and in his personal appreciation. Each student gives his own sincere expression of thought and emotion, and the whole group produces one rich interpretation.

[5] Marjorie Gullan, *op. cit.*

SOME CORRELATES OF SOUND DIFFICULTY IN STUTTERING

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A RECENT investigation[1] has shown that more stuttering spasms occur on some speech sounds than on others, and that it is possible to rank the sounds on this basis. The present study attempts to relate these variations in difficulty to other aspects of speech.

The method used is to correlate figures on median per cent difficulty for stutterers from the study named, with other measures of sounds available in the literature. This procedure is necessarily imperfect, utilizing as it does data from several different investigations, collected under a variety of conditions. Furthermore, none of the studies measured all of the sounds. The coefficients presented in Table 1, therefore, are in error by indeterminable amounts, and can be taken to indicate only trends and approximations.

RESULTS

No measure of the normal physiological difficulty of speech sound production was available. A compromise was effected by using data from a study[2] which ranks the sounds according to their average incorrect pronunciation by young children. This measure, of course, is complex, but there is considerable justification for the assumpiton that its physiological components are predominant at ages where sounds are being acquired. At the two-year-old level, for example, the speech mechanism is relatively unstable, and sound acquisition tends to follow the path of least physiological resistance. Table 1 shows that the correlation between initial sound difficulty for two-year-old children and initial sound difficulty for stutterers is significantly positive. Apparently the sounds which are most difficult for the normal two-year-old child tend to break down most frequently in stuttering. As shown in Table 1, the correlation between difficulty for stutterers and difficulty for six-year-old children is .03 ± .11. The speech of the child of that age is subject to influences similar to those

[1] W. Johnson and S. F. Brown, "Stuttering in Relation to Various Speech Sounds," Q.J.S., 21, 1935, 481–496.

[2] B. L. Wellman, I. M. Case, I. G. Mengert, and D. E. Bradbury, "Speech Sounds of Young Children," *Univ. of Iowa Studies*, 5, 1931, No. 2.

which determine the accuracy of normal adult speech; it is influenced less by physiological difficulty and more by random psychological factors. The resulting deviations from correct pronunciation would not be expected to correlate with sound difficulty for stutterers.

It is seen from Table 1 that stuttering difficulty is inversely related to the intensity[3] and duration[4] of sounds in speech. Intensity in speech is determined physiologically by the amount of breath pressure, the volume of the resonance cavities, and the size of the mouth opening, while duration is partly a function of the speed and precision of sound formation and articulation. It is observed that the sounds upon which stuttering most often occurs are those which normally are more difficult than others because they require constriction of the cavities, narrow mouth opening, and precise, rapid articulation and phonation; those sounds which, in general, necessitate the most extreme and active use of the speech mechanism.

TABLE I. *Coefficients of correlation between difficulty of speech sounds for stutterers and other measures of sounds.*

	Difficulty for stutterers		
	N	r	PE_r
Difficulty for children (2 years)	35	.43	±.09
Difficulty for children (6 years)	35	.03	±.11
Intensity	31	—.51	±.09
Duration	38	—.37	±.09
Fundamental pitch of vowels *	6	.66	±.16
Frequency of occurrence	34	.08	±.08

* Computed by the method of rank-differences.

Pitch is another physical attribute of speech sound which is determined physiologically. Taylor[5] found that the habitual fundamental pitch of vowels follows the traditional vowel triangle, formed on the basis of relative tongue position, and explained this systematic change in pitch as being caused by the dynamogenetic irradiation of varying degrees of tongue tension to the musculature of the larynx. He checked this explanation by demonstrating that the pitch of a given vowel almost invariably is raised above its normal level when a hand-dynamometer is squeezed simultaneously with phonation.

[3] H. Fletcher, *Speech and Hearing* (Van Nostrand, 1929).

[4] C. E. Parmenter and S. N. Treviño, "The Length of the Sounds of a Middle Westerner," *Amer. Speech*, 10, 1935, 129–133.

[5] H. C. Taylor, "The Fundamental Pitch of English Vowels," *J. Exper. Psychol.*, 16, 1933, 565–582.

When Johnson and Brown's [6] ranking of the vowels as to difficulty is correlated with pitch (Taylor's data) by the method of rank-differences, a coefficient of .66 ± .16 is obtained. Although this coefficient is very limited in its application because of the small number of cases, and because the vowels are not typical of all speech sounds, it suggests a possible relationship between stuttering difficulty and tension of the articulatory mechanism.

It was felt that there might be a tendency for more stuttering to occur on sounds which are heard by the stutterer less frequently, and which he less often has occasion to produce. Conversely, it certainly is true that the more frequent sounds have more opportunity to become "Jonah" sounds. Data from Dewey's [7] classification of the relative frequency of speech sounds were correlated with difficulty for stutterers (Table 1). No relationship of any significance was found. Apparently practice, familiarity, and other factors conditioned by frequency of occurrence are not related to stuttering difficulty.

Summary and Conclusions

By the use of correlation techniques, the median frequency with which stuttering spasms occur on the different speech sounds was shown to be related directly to sound difficulty for two-year-old children and to the fundamental pitch of vowels, to be related inversely to the intensity and duration of sounds, and to be unrelated to sound difficulty for six-year-old children and to frequency of occurrence of the sounds. Since the measures used varied in the conditions under which they were made, the obtained coefficients of correlation differ from the true coefficients by amounts which cannot be attributed solely to sampling error. It is not within the scope of the present study, therefore, to indicate the true degrees of relationship. All of the measures which are related to the variable under invstigation appear to be characterized by systematic variations in physiological difficulty, and it is concluded that the latter may be a partial determinant of spasm distribution over the various sounds. The individual differences among stutterers are so large,[8] however, that no single cause may be assigned. Possible approaches to the problem are seen in the procedures of experimental phonetics, motor phonetics and genetic psychology.

[6] *Op. cit.*

[7] G. Dewey, *Relative Frequency of English Speech Sounds* (Cambridge, Harvard University Press, 1932).

[8] W. Johnson and S. F. Brown, *op. cit.*

THE GROWTH OF THE STUTTERING SPASM

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THE teacher of speech and speech correction in the public schools is constantly puzzled by the infinite variety of the symptoms presented by the stutterers who come to her for help. One child bobs his head and twists his mouth askew; another protrudes his tongue. There seem to be as many forms of stuttering as there are stutterers, and yet each individual stutterer seems to have his own characteristic manner of blocking. If stuttering is to be considered a discrete disorder and not a wastebasket term, this variety of symptoms must be explained.

A careful study of the development of stuttering in little children provides the solution to the puzzle. The first symptoms to appear are rapid, effortless repetitions or comparatively short and unforced prolongations of some part of the movement sequence involved in any speech act. Bluemel has termed these prolongations and repetitions the primary symptoms of stuttering. They may be found in the speech of all adult stutterers as well, although usually they are so hidden by the secondary symptoms that they are overlooked. In little children who have stuttered but a short time, they often exist without any reactions of awareness or expectancy. The child fails to recognize them as communicative irritants or as social abnormalities. Rather, he seems to accept them as his way of speech.

Sooner or later this state of non-reacting acceptance is challenged and disturbed. In the stress of some situation demanding immediate communication, the repetitions and prolongations are sensed as obstacles. Thwarting is unpleasant and the child reacts with behavior that can only be described as that of surprise and bewilderment. In many instances the same surprise and bewilderment follow the child's first awareness of his repetitions and prolongations as being unacceptable to his parents or playmates. Social stigma can make any behavior unpleasant, and very soon the child stutterer recognizes that something very unpleasant is happening when he talks.

Behavior indicatory of this awareness soon makes its first appearance. Repetitions and prolongations are followed by sudden pauses. The word, phrase, or sentence is repeated. The rate, pitch, or intensity of succeeding words is altered. The speech attempt is given up altogether, or the child leaves the speech situation. Compensatory behavior such as shouting, crying, laughing, spitting upon his auditor, hitting his playmate, or temper tantrums may occur. Very soon primitive devices of release are attempted. The child increases the

tension of the chest and oral musculature, employing gross bodily movements at the same time, and exhibiting considerable force in articulation. The repetitions are quickly interrupted and followed by pauses prior to new attempts.

Once the child is thoroughly aware of speech unpleasantness, fear of stuttering begins to occur. This is to be expected, since the essence of fear is the expectation of unpleasantness. In some cases the expectation of speech unpleasantness first seems to attach itself to the word on which trouble was previously experienced, whereas in other cases it appears first as an association with a situation. Study of the spread of this expectancy indicates that the first feared or "Jonah" words to develop are, (1) those which by their very frequency of occurrence under communicative stress have had more associations with past stuttering, or (2) those whose associations with past stuttering were made vivid by the shock of the social penalty inflicted. The first situations to be feared by the stutterer fall into the same two classes. Gradually the fear, or expectancy of unpleasantness, spreads from word to word and from situation to situation. The appearance of "Jonah" words is soon followed by the appearance of "Jonah" sounds, and finally the word itself comes to carry a great many other cues which set off expectancy of stuttering. Some of these are word meaning, number of syllables, unfamiliarity, and articulation difficulty. Similarly the generalized expectancy which attaches itself to the speech situation gathers unto itself more cues which will set it off. The situation in which greater penalty is placed upon stuttering will be feared more than those in which less penalty is involved. Generalized or situation expectancy often involves visualization of the speech situation as full of abnormality, and rehearsal and singling out of words takes place, whereupon the words themselves become feared and trouble starts.

As we have said, the situation's generalized expectancy of stuttering soon begets the specific expectancy of stuttering on certain words. Whenever any child experiences enough unpleasantness in a particular situation or behavior he begins to fear it. Fear seldom occurs consistently without producing devices to prevent or reduce the expected unpleasantness, and expectation of stuttering unpleasantness soon produces its characteristic devices as well. The child begins to use devices, tricks, or "crutches" to ward off his expected speech abnormality. These have been observed in children of no more than four years of age, and nearly every adult stutterer exhibits them either in voluntary or automatic form.

These expectancy devices fall into four major categories, those of avoidance, those which postpone the speech attempt, those which

are used as "starters" to terminate the postponement and initiate the speech attempt, and finally, those of anti-expectancy.

Certain stutterers use devices for avoiding the feared word. Among these are the following: (1) giving up the speech attempt altogether; (2) substituting a different word for the one feared; (3) saying the whole thought in a different way (circumlocution); (4) waiting for help on the word; (5) telegrammic or very condensed speech.

Some stutterers feel that if they can postpone the attempt on the word for a moment they occasionally are able to say it without trouble. Then again, they sometimes feel so much fear and dread for the approaching word that they postpone the attempt for that reason. Among these are the following: (1) saying "a..a..a.." or "ah" or "er" (accessory vocalization); (2) pausing; (3) repeating preceding words; (4) prolonging end of preceding word; (5) slowing down the rate at which the preceding words are spoken.

Stutterers sometimes feel that if they can just get started, the feared word will be spoken successfully. Many types of "starters" are used. Among the more common of these are: (1) using a starting word, sound, or phrase such as "well," "um," or "that is"; (2) using a stereotyped or particular movement which is made just before the word is attempted (this may be body jerk, eye-blink, or any other movement); (3) using some movement to time the moment of speech attempt (a movement such as tapping the foot or blinking the eye, made just at the moment of attempt and not just before as in No. 2); (4) repetition plus increased rate (going back and getting a running start); (5) suddenly increased tension; (6) suddenly decreased tension; (7) sudden change in the pitch of the voice; (8) sudden change in the intensity of the voice.

Stutterers sometimes feel that if they could get rid if the dread or the expectancy of stuttering on a certain approaching word they would be able to say it successfully. There are three major ways of doing this: (1) by using a kind of speech in which no word stands out enough to be feared; (2) by filling the mind or attention with other things (distractions), so that expectancy of stuttering is kept out; (3) by assuming an attitude of boldness or confidence incompatible with fear.

Among those of the first class are: (a) use of monotone or unstressed words; (b) slow, deliberate or measured speech; (c) singsong speech; (d) very rapid speech.

Among those of the second class are: (a) other voluntary movements; (b) unnatural speech demanding strict attention; (c) visualization of words; (d) phonetic drill positions; (e) breathing or vocalization ritual; (f) other distractions.

Among those of the third class (devices to achieve confidence) are: (a) using swallowing, coughing, etc., to prove to self that he still has control of the speech organs; (b) compensatory behavior; (c) whispered rehearsal; (d) assumption of aggressive, belligerent, humorous, or other analogous behavior.

We have described in a preceding paragraph the manner in which the primitive devices of release originated and developed. They too, may become habits and part of the stutterer's abnormality. They may be divided into two main classes, those involving immediate cessation, and those involving prolongation. The child who reacts to the primary symptoms by stopping has several available reactions. He may stop and simply try again; he may stop and have recourse to one or more of the expectancy devices or habits described above; or he may stop and finish the rest of the word. Unfortunately the second of these possible reactions is the one most frequently found. If, however, the child does not stop when the motor sequence of the word is interrupted by a block or the primary symptoms, he may either prolong with force the speech posture in effect at that moment, or prolong it without increasing the tension. Moreover, he will tend to develop devices to interrupt and put an end to the prolongation. All of these devices tend to become habits as well, and the stutterer is left with release devices which do not release, but merely add contortion and abnormality to the primary symptoms.

Too little attention has been paid to the development of stuttering, and most of the quarreling about the rôle of habit and fear in causing or contributing to the handicap has been due to lack of insight into such development. Whatever the cause of the primary symptoms may be, the grotesque host of secondary symptoms, both those of expectancy and release, result from the turning of devices into habits. What is more, most of the adult stutterer's symptomatology—indeed, the major part of his handicap—is due, not to the primary symptoms which may be truly termed stuttering, but to the habits they have engendered. If stutterers are to be treated intelligently, the treatment must be devoted not only to removing the causes of the primary symptoms, but also to the reconditioning and eradication of the secondary symptoms.

DEBATERS JUDGE EACH OTHER

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CHANGES in debate procedure should be for the purpose of improving debate. This may mean making debate more valuable for participants; removing some of the objectionable features of debate; making debate more adaptive to student and curricular needs; or making other changes of a desired character. In the tournament debating which has become more important in the last few years, judging receives more criticism than any other feature. The problem of this paper is—can judges be eliminated in the preliminary rounds of the debate tournament and the best teams still be permitted to enter the final rounds? If it is possible to remove the demands for judges in the preliminary rounds, better judgments will undoubtedly prevail in the remaining rounds, thus minimizing one major criticism of debating.

In tournaments at the present time, all teams that have had two defeats during the preliminary rounds are eliminated and the other teams debate round after round, dropping out as they are defeated twice. A tournament with fifty teams at the start will have, after seven rounds, six or eight teams left. Can a procedure of eliminating judges in the six preliminary rounds guarantee that the same teams will survive as when judges are used? Even better, may this method guarantee that the best teams will be left more surely than if judges had been used?

The writer has carried on two experiments in developing the mechanics of such a method. Further experimentation is necessary, but if we can prove that the method discussed here is as efficient as our present system of judging tournaments, a real contribution has been made to tournament debating. If this method is more efficient than our present system of judging, so much the better. In either case we shall be improving debate, something that we are all interested in doing.

The following seven points represent the mechanics already developed that must be considered in order to understand just what this method is and how it may be used in future tournaments.

1. Six rounds of debating are held without any judges being used.

2. At the end of these six rounds, each team member ranks in order from one to six the teams he and his colleague have met, giving the best team the rank of 1, and the poorest the rank of 6. (A sample ballot is included at the end of this article.)

3. The eight teams having the lowest totals at the end of the six rounds are put in the quarter-final round. Judges are used in this round, in the semi-finals, and in the finals.

4. As many teams as wish may start the tournament. In case an odd number registers, the home team can usually add another team or drop one. It is advisable not to have "byes" in this method of judging.

5. It is advisable that teams report the debate held at the end of each round.

6. A period of an hour or more without any debating should follow the first round.

7. The schedule of all rounds held should be posted while the last debate is in progress.

These mechanics cover the essential features of conducting the tournament under this new plan. The reasons for these steps may help explain this new system.

1. An essential difference between the present way of judging tournaments and this new plan is that the new plan is self-explanatory.

2. It embodies the procedure whereby the best teams are selected to enter the quarter-final round.

Each debater ranks the six teams he has met. If the ranking is done by the two debaters as a team, that ranking will represent a compromise in some cases and the compromise may not present a true picture. Disagreement as to the relative strength of opposing teams may be legitimate and earnest. The following represents the judgments of the two members of the team of the same five opponents met. (In this experiment five rounds were used instead of six.)

Teams met	Ranking of one debater	Ranking by other debaters
1	5	2
47	3	5
2	2	4
45	1	1
16	4	3

It must be understood that this difference of opinion is not typical. In experiments already held more than half the ballots turned in showed the same rankings by the two members of the team; this method, however, protects legitimate differences of opinion by team members, hence a more accurate result.

There are two reasons why six rounds of debate is the best number to have. The first is that six rounds give a wide enough distribution from high to low scores for the relative strength of the various teams to be portrayed. To exemplify this point—if four rounds of

debate are used, the best possible total for a team would be eight; that is, if each debater would rank a team first, it would get a total of eight firsts. The poorest score, supposing a team were ranked fourth by every debater, would be thirty-two. Between the two scores, eight and thirty-two, all the teams of the tournament would be distributed. By having six rounds, the difference is between twelve and seventy-two. This is a much wider distribution, hence it will indicate more accurately the relative standing of all teams.

The second reason for having six rounds is that there is less likelihood of meeting six weak or six extremely strong teams than of meeting four weak or four strong teams.

The eight teams having the lowest ranks will make up the quarter-finals. Should there be a tie, the teams tied should debate with judges and the winner go into the quarter-final round. Eliminations then start on the basis of one defeat. The judges can be picked carefully for these debates, since there are so few to be judged.

It is possible, of course, to have only four teams picked and have the semi-finals immediately; on the other hand, sixteen teams might be picked and eliminations begin from that point. Experiments so far conducted have shown that eight teams is the proper number to select after preliminary rounds. Variation from this number may depend on the number originally entering the tournament. It is evident that the number of teams in the preliminary rounds need not be limited. Finding suitable rooms is the only major problem during preliminary rounds, other than the mechanics of setting up the tournament. This fact makes for an additional advantage to schools with meager budgets, for it is possible by this plan to give many teams debate practice at little expense.

The tournament director will find that a report from each team at the end of each round will help keep the tournament running smoothly. When judges are used, the ballots handed in form a check on the progress of each team. Without such a check, mistakes might not be discovered until after the preliminaries were over, thereby causing needless confusion to the tournament directors in selecting the teams deserving to continue. The advantage of having an hour or so between round one and round two is apparent. Any difficulties developing in round one may be ironed out so that there will be no trouble during the remainder of the tournament. This method of judging demands particularly that byes be eliminated, for they are difficult to evaluate when compilations are made to select the surviving teams. Posting the schedule of all rounds is a convenience to the debaters, who may forget to keep a record of the teams met.

Further experimentation will improve the mechanics of running

the tournament. There are certain tentative conclusions presented as hypotheses demanding further investigation.

1. In our trials of the plan, the judging was conscientiously performed by the debaters. This statement is substantiated by the fact that team rankings were consistent. Despite individual variation as mentioned earlier, general agreement was worthy of note. As proof, the record of the first ten teams in the first experiment held is given here. As the reader probably knows, teams in tournaments are usually assigned numbers rather than designated by schools. Taking teams numbered from 1 to 10 would thus give as fair a sampling of the entire tournament as any other sampling method.

Team number	Ranking by opponents (In this experiment there were four rounds, and the team ranked opponents as a team, not as individuals)
1	1, 1, 2, 2
2	2, 1, 1, 2
3	1, 1, 1, 1
4	2, 2, 2, 3
5	1, 1, 2, 3
6	1, 1, 3, 1
7	4, 4, 3, 2
8	3, 4, 4, 3
9	3, 1, 3, 2
10	2, 2, 2, 2

Flippant comments by the debaters were frequently heard on the idea of judging each other, yet when the results are studied, they show that the student judgments were conscientious in a vast majority of cases.

Coaches who attended the experiments were practically unanimously in favor of the idea. No dissenting voice was heard during the experiments held. If there were any objections, they were not registered officially.

Debaters were not so heartily in favor of the idea. Hearing certain objections raised at first, I asked a debater who had had considerable debating experience to express his views. After talking over the problem with several of his colleagues, he wrote the following:

> The case for and against the ballot decision may be stated briefly as follows: first, it is necessary to make the basic assumption that a tournament implies the survival of the fittest team on a basis of debates won. The first objection is, then, that a team might win all of its debates and still be ranked last by each of the teams encountered (Author's note—win in the sense that if a judge had been present he would have given the team the decision), for the standard of judgment is not the debate itself but how that particular debate compares to

previous and later debates with the same team, which is something over which no control can be exerted by either team. Conversely the same thing is true; a team might lose all its debates and as a result of greater weakness on the part of the teams in their opponent's brackets, emerge with ranking of first for the six rounds.

The second objection is that the more experienced teams in the tournaments are well known to each other, both personally and by reputation, a fact which is bound to influence ballots either consciously or unconsciously. Similiarly, if any two schools represented are notorious rivals, the result is likely to be the election of a mediocre but compatible team from some disinterested school.

The third objection is that when results of the ballots are made known, the feeling of injustice which is usually aimed at the judges, which is usually forgotten quickly because there are several judges voting, may be directed against the teams whose recipient rankings were low, and this is likely to be remembered.

The benefits will not require enumeration, but are none the less important. It stands to reason that all debates must be at top performance. There is a tendency to handle cases more accurately, for there is no advantage in attempting to misconstrue a case to an opponent who is also your judge. This style of debating virtually eliminates sarcasm and establishes a more friendly contact between the debaters during the debate. In short, this method of debating accomplishes all things claimed for non-decision debating, without non-decision debating's overwhelming disadvantages.

A possible disadvantage suggested by another debater was that students tend to be more set on a particular interpretation of the question than the average judge. That is, a debater is likely to mark down an interpretation if he doesn't like it, giving the team using this interpretation a poor mark because of the interpretation, rather than judging the team on the basis of the debating done. Another student's objection was to the effect that personal animosities would weigh more with the students in ranking their opponents than with judges.

So far, this presentation has considered the mechanics of, and certain reactions to, this experiment of eliminating judges in preliminary rounds of a debate tournament. The assumption has been that if there is as much guarantee of the best teams surviving by this method, then it is a valuable addition to debating as a whole. Further proof that this assumption has value is found in a mathematical study of the results of one of the experiments. Mathematically, it seems as if the best teams are likely to be selected by this method of judging teams. After a study of the data, Professor O. W. Albert, of the University of Redlands, presented the following conclusions:

1. If there are approximately fifty teams in a tournament, "the chances are one out of sixty-four that any team would win all six or lose all six debates in six rounds, assuming one team has as good a chance as another." This

means that there is small chance of meeting six teams which vary markedly from the average of all teams. That is, no team would be likely to meet six very strong or six very weak teams in the six rounds.

2. "The final average ranking of each team correlates to a marked degree with each individual rank given the team." The correlation was found to be .748, 1 representing perfect correlation. Therefore the probability of teams or individuals ranking a particular team undeservedly low or high in one debate, thus throwing them in a wrong position, is not great. Or to put it another way, if the average rank of the team was second by all its opponents, a majority of the ranks would be 2. The reader is asked to refer to the example given in order to see how consistent the ranking of teams really was in the experiment.

No more has been asked for this method of judging preliminary rounds than that it do as satisfactory a job as is now performed by judges. However, further investigation may prove this method superior to judges. We all know how difficult it is to get satisfactory judges when so many are needed, as in a large tournament. Eliminating judging in preliminary rounds of the tournament merits attention and further investigation, with an effort to determine whether it may not be superior to the type of judging we now have.

In the second experiment by the writer, judges were used, but the students also ranked each other. The following rule motivated the student rankings—". . . the four highest ranking teams will be inserted in the sixth round (there were five preliminary rounds in this experiment) even though they might be eliminated by the regular judgments. It is understood that teams so inserted will be considered as already having had one defeat."

There were three divisions of the tournament, men's varsity, women's varsity, and junior college and lower division. In the varsity division, after five rounds of debating, fifteen teams survived. But of the four teams having the best rankings according to the student judgments, two had been eliminated by judge decisions, one of the two having lost two debates, the other, three debates. According to the rules, these two teams were added to the fifteen and went into the sixth round. The team that had lost two debates according to the decisions of the judges went on winning after the fifth round and got into the quarter-finals. The other team won another debate before being eliminated.

The record in the women's division is even more astounding. After five rounds, nine teams had not as yet lost two debates, hence were eligible to go into the sixth round. But two of the best four teams according to student ranking had been eliminated by judge decisions, one of them having lost every debate, the other team having lost two. According to the rules, these two teams were inserted into the sixth round. The team that had already lost two debates won

another before being eliminated. The team that had lost *every* debate according to the ballots of the judges went on winning, losing only in the final debate. In the junior college division, seven teams survived the five rounds and one more was added by the rankings of the debaters. This team won another debate before elimination took place.

In other words, five teams were added by this method of ranking opponents by the debaters themselves. Each one of the five won at least one more debate. One team went to the quarter-finals and another to the finals. If it is true that the judging is better after the preliminary rounds because fewer judges are needed, and better selections can be made, then these facts are of the utmost significance.

The author has deliberately avoided enumerating or discussing many advantages he sees in this method. Rather he calls for co-operation in developing the idea, and in searching for the facts. The mechanics of this new method of judging preliminary rounds of debate tournaments have been presented. Some of the advantages and disadvantages from the debater's point of view have been reviewed. There is some justification, mathematically, for believing that the judgments rendered are accurate and unprejudiced. Comparing this plan of eliminating judges in preliminary rounds with the method now used indicates that the method discussed in this presentation may be superior. As a result of further investigation and experience, it is hoped that we can add to the field of debate a new technique, one that will serve debate to the benefit of the student and to the cause of debating.

DEBATER'S RANKING OF TEAMS MET

Each debater is to rank the five teams met in the order of effectiveness and debating, ranking the most effective 1, and so on to 6.

Note: Each debater on the team ranks the opposing six teams. If you meet less than six teams, rank the number met.

These judgments must be turned in immediately following the debate. Round 7 cannot be arranged until they are in.

Name of School .....
Name of Debater .....
Number of debate team .....

Round	Number of team	Rank
1	.....	.....
2	.....	.....
3	.....	.....
4	.....	.....
5	.....	.....
6	.....	.....

SPEECH INSTITUTES FOR HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS

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SOMETHING to say, said with graceful economy of words, in sentences trimly athletic, intelligence made intelligible, sincerity made contagious—this is the essence of effective speech." These are words of President Frank of the University of Wisconsin. The value of speech education—its significance in training for effective citizenship, as an aid in preparation for more complete living—we concede. Any constructive efforts, therefore, to encourage the development of effective speech is surely within the scope of the activities of departments of debating and public discussion.

The organization of forensic, debate, or discussion leagues is simply a means to facilitate opportunities for speech training. The contest idea culminating in a championship is but an incident in the plan. Creditable participation by the entire student body is the goal. After all, it is not the champions or even the state contestants that demand the interest of the Forensic Association or of the State Department of Public Instruction.

Where speech work in our schools is worthwhile—is important training for intelligent, effective participation in a democracy—its success is measured not by the superior type of work of a few who reach the final contest, but by the creditable activity of the many students. In some of our schools the entire student body participates in the speech educational activities.

A conference, with constructive criticism by critic judges, an opportunity for questions and for discussion of the weak and strong points of a speech program, whether debate, oration, declamation, reading, or extemporaneous speaking, is an essential feature of all final state contest programs in Wisconsin. So much regret that so few could benefit from these conferences led to the development of the Speech Institute in the farthest corners of our state. For the state is the campus of a State University. So much for the origin of the Speech Institute.

During the past winter over one thousand high school boys and girls were afforded an opportunity to take advantage of instruction in the various fields of the art of speech through the co-operation of the Department of Speech of the University, the Forensic Asso-

ciation, and the Department of Debating and Public Discussion of the University Extension Division. Speech institutes were held in four centers of the state—Amery (population 1,854) in the northwest, Mellen (population 1,629) in the north central section, Shawano (population 4,188) in the northeast, and Madison (population 57,899) in the south.

For three years such institutes have been scheduled; for 1936–37, four are contemplated, with tentative schedules, at Menomonie (population 5,595) in the northwest, at Shawano in the northeast, at Antigo (population 8,610) in the north central section, and at Madison in the south central section.

An opportunity is afforded for member-schools to express a preference as to place. When a particular school receives twenty votes, an institute is planned. To date Madison is the only city at which more than one speech institute has been held. This repetition is due to the fact that an intercollegiate debate scheduled at the University is of special interest.

With the place and time determined, the preliminary procedure is given careful consideration. A special invitation with information in regard to entertainment, with program and with registration blank is sent by the hostess school to all schools that have shown a special interest. The information on possible attendance is very essential in order to make the necessary arrangements. Well organized publicity is released from the state office to local and county papers.

What to include on the program is determined by the votes of the schools participating so far as possible, since it is impractical to attempt to cover all phases of speech education.

A debate by university students has always been included, followed the next morning by a discussion of the debate, with an opportunity for questions, under the leadership of the critic judge, and with the debaters present to contribute to the discussion.

An effort is always made to develop a community interest through invitations to the debate and other open programs. The local City Superintendent, a member of the School Board, the Mayor, the City Attorney, the Secretary of the Association of Commerce, and other leaders are invited to participate. Always speech education as an asset to the individual as a citizen is emphasized at every opportunity.

Another special feature is an address by some member of the State Department of Public Instruction or by a member of the faculty of the University other than from the Department of Speech.

While a member of the faculty is meeting a class—there are

always two, possibly three or four in session at one time—another instructor is meeting the coaches. An effort is always made to fit the program to the needs and wishes of the member-schools participating. The demonstrations by the students are followed by criticism, question, and open discussion.

Perhaps these institutes are not so essential in other states, but in Wisconsin high schools, both coaches and students appreciate the opportunity for improvement afforded by the Speech Institute.

The slogan for our speech institutes, and for all our speech education activities is "Not to defeat each other, but to pace one another on the road to excellence."

Jessie Rittenhouse in *My House of Life* gives her idea of the life values of speech activities:

> The thing that educated me and gave me my tools for life was not mathematics nor any specific work in the classroom, keen as I was for languages and literature, but the exhilarating discussion in the old Ingelow Room where met the literary society to which I belonged. My foot was on my native heath when it came to debate, then so much a part of educational life.
>
> What ready speech it gave us, what orderly and coherent thinking, what zest in making one's thought come alive on the lips! What do I not owe to those hours when I built up an argument or demolished one and so laid the foundation for extemporaneous speaking, for creative thinking before an audience.

SPORTSMANSHIP IN DEBATING

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FOR many years educators and the people in general have advocated athletics because it develops true sportsmen and sportswomen. They claim that in addition to the physical training the students receive, they also receive training for citizenship, in that they learn to be fair, just, and honest in their games. I think that this is true, but I contend it is even more true in debating.

We think of debating as a mental combat based upon diligent research which has given the debater a command of a great many facts. We very rarely think of debating as giving our students training in good sportsmanship. Yet under the proper guidance, the training in sportsmanship in debating is probably greater than in athletics, because the opportunities to be unsportsman-like are greater. It is the opinion of this writer that debate coaches should make an attempt to put more emphasis on sportsmanship in debate. A single

word changed or omitted in a quotation may go unnoticed by the other team, yet may alter the meaning of the entire statement. A team may quote only a part of the statement that is favorable in their case, or they may deliberately manufacture a statement and attribute it to some noted authority. Any of these things might go unnoticed in the debate and might form the basis for giving the decision to the team that employs these tactics. Quite often the opposing team is not able to discover these unethical practices in their opponents. The judge cannot be prepared on every question he judges; he must depend upon the honesty of the debaters. No one can justify debate when such things as these occur, yet they do occur quite frequently in every debate season.

I realize that many of these unsportsman-like tactics are the result of pressure brought by the administration of the school. The coaches in debate, like those in athletics, are told to win. They are told that if they want to hold their jobs they must win decisions. In fact, in some cases a coach's salary depends upon the number of debates he or she can win for the school. Examples of this type of coercion have been told to me by a number of coaches with whom I have come in contact. One coach, who was having a successful season, told me that he wanted to come to an agreement with the school authorities before his next debate, for he had to get his raise while he was winning. If he lost a debate, which would throw him out of the running for the state championship, he would not receive an increase in salary. Another teacher told me that his school administration based their judgment of him as a teacher not upon what he did in the classroom, but upon the number of decisions his team won during the debate season.

Now as long as such conditions exist, it is hard for the coach to sacrifice a decision just to be sportsman-like. Nevertheless, it is our duty to educate the administration, the audience, and the team to believe that honest, legitimate decisions are the only ones that count in the long run. Of course, I realize that sometimes the debaters indulge in unsportsman-like tactics on the platform without the instigation of the coach, but when this occurs, the debater should be reprimanded, and if the offense occurs again, he should be dismissed from the squad.

Quite often we as coaches are so desirous of winning that the team assimilate some of that same spirit, and as a result lose all sight of the real aims of debating in their drive toward the decisions. Many debaters have told me that as a result of becoming so imbued with the idea of winning, they have completely lost track of the techniques and the aims of debating. During squad meetings and in little pep meetings before the debate, the coach has so instilled in

their minds the idea that they must win that they have gone on the platform with that one aim in mind, and consequently have come to the conclusion that they must win the decision at any cost. Surely, when a debater goes into a contest with this mental attitude, it is no wonder he uses many unsportsman-like tactics. This unsportsman-like conduct, however, is not confined to the actual contest. Quite often after the decision is rendered, both the coach and team of the losing school indulge in discourtesies to their opponents and to the judge or judges.

Among the poorest group of losers in inter-school activities are the debaters and their coaches. We have not learned as yet to accept decisions with a smile whether they are right or wrong. Both the team and the coach indulge in discourtesies to the winning team. Because of this conduct after the decision has been rendered, a great many debates end in hard feelings between the two schools. The coach formulates alibies to account for the defeat of his team. He quite often gets the judge or judges into a discussion of his decision and tries to convince him that his team won. He ridicules the judge to his team and supporters. I know of one instance where, after a contest in our State League last year, the judge was forced to submit to a severe cross examination for more than an hour after his decision was rendered, simply because the losing team refused to accept the verdict in good grace. I am heartily in accord with the practice now in vogue of having the judge explain the reasons for his decision after it has been rendered; but I can see no justification for forcing that judge, after he has given his reasons, to submit to all kinds of questions and discourtesies simply because the losing team is too unsportsman-like to accept the decision. Judges are not infallible. Sometimes they do make mistakes, but such errors should be accepted with courtesy by the losers, who should realize that "to err is human."

We rarely see or hear of an athletic coach or player protesting a decision in a high school contest. They have learned to accept decisions. Since a debater is merely an intellectual athlete, he should have his code of sportsmanship, just the same as the physical athlete. If we as coaches can develop debaters (1) who will play fair at all times; (2) who will give a square deal to their opponents, to the spectators, and to the judges in their interpretation of their material; (3) who will respect the official or officials of the debate and abide by the decision; (5) who will co-operate with their team mates and not try to "grandstand;" (6) who will conduct themselves while out of school and out of town in a manner that will be a credit to the institution they represent, we can remove many of the criticisms now leveled at our activities. If we teach our debaters to win only by

legitimate means; if we ourselves try to be the sort of person we hope our debaters will be; and if we can impress upon the administration the fact that they must judge debating in terms of its value as an educational tool in training citizens, and by the conduct and attitudes of the contestants and spectators rather than on the number of decisions won and lost, we can develop these things.

We should remember that we in debate are training the future leaders of our country. In their respective communities and in the nation, they are sure to suffer many reverses. If we can train them to be true sportsmen and sportswomen, we shall not only make for a more harmonious community, but shall give them one of the prime requisites of a successful life.

THE WORK OF THE STANDARDS STUDY COMMITTEE AND THE HIGH SCHOOL CURRICULUM

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THE accepted, and practically the only, plan throughout the centuries for the admission of students to college has been that of examinations. In 1871 the President of the University of Michigan conceived the idea of a closer co-operation between secondary schools and institutions of higher education; he decided that the time was ripe for putting into practice the occasionally suggested idea that education from the kindergarten to the university should be a continuous, uninterrupted process. In keeping with this idea he established the diploma relationship between high schools of Michigan and the State University. Since that time the educational program of that State has been a continuous, uninterrupted one for those students who wished to proceed from the grades through the high school and on into the University. This marked a very definite forward step educationally.

As soon as a few of the larger high schools were visited by the President of the University or faculty members and given the diploma relationship, other schools began asking for the same privilege. If at first they could not meet the requirements, the officials set about bringing their schools up to a higher level educationally. Rather soon

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some of the best secondary schools, both public and private, in neighboring states asked for the same desirable relationship and the time came when the University of Michigan had on its diploma list secondary schools in Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Colorado, Iowa, Kentucky, Massachusetts, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, Pennsylvania, Wisconsin and possibly in others. Either on account of the advantages resulting to the University of Michigan in the securing of students or because other states and state universities wished to be as progressive as the best, the diploma or accredited school idea was adopted in other states. When these state lists came to have meaning and worth, the University of Michigan ceased accrediting secondary schools outside the State boundaries and accepted the lists prepared in other states.

In 1895 several representative educators from secondary schools and colleges met in the city of Chicago to talk over mutual educational problems. The desire at that time appeared to be to establish closer relationships between all of the qualified educational institutions of that territory. In time an organization was effected which later came to be known as the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. Meetings were arranged each year and interested men and women from secondary schools and colleges met to talk over their common problems. Institutions of higher education which were doing good work, as well as the best high schools, were given a place on the accredited or membership list—a great honor to any secondary school or college then, and still probably the highest honor an educational institution can reach. Soon after this first meeting in Chicago a group of educators met and organized the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. Other associations have developed in the course of time until now the United States is divided into six regional associations constantly interested in promoting better relationships between colleges and secondary schools.

In the course of carrying on the work of the North Central Association, the number of secondary schools to be considered for membership each year increased rapidly. It then became necessary to determine and to agree upon certain criteria of excellence or standards in order that similar treatment might be accorded each school. These criteria were printed as the standards for secondary schools and were added to or revised from time to time. By the end of the first quarter of this century it was becoming increasingly evident that the printed standards, even though they had served a widely useful purpose in the past, were not then as helpful to colleges and schools as they should be. In some instances they seemed even to be a handicap, for it was clear to many leaders in the North Central

Association that some of the schools which could and did technically meet the ten narrow standards as published and did thus become members of the Association, were not as good as some of the non-member schools which had been organized more recently and which were meeting in a better way the needs of their pupil populations. Any set of regulations, even the best and most useful, seem to become rigid, set and inflexible once they are written and published as standards.

Instead of making an attempt at a complete revision of these ten standards which had served such a useful purpose, and which were still useful, the Secondary Commission of the North Central Association decided to make a complete study of the field of secondary education with the avowed intent and purpose of setting up completely revised criteria for use in selecting schools for membership. The Executive Committee of the Association co-operated and gave the Secondary Commission not only its blessing but a sum of money with which to get the Study started. A committee of five was appointed and work started at once. Dr. George F. Zook, President of Akron University, Federal Commissioner of Education-Elect, and a leader in the study which the colleges of the North Central Association had been carrying on, was invited to attend an early meeting of the committee. Representatives of the Southern Association and of the Middle States Association were also invited. Before the close of the first session it was felt that not only was the time ripe for such a study, but that all associations might well work together on the problem. In fact it was learned from the visiting members that such a study had been considered previously, and had been postponed until after the National Survey of Secondary Education could be made by the Office of Education. It was then and there decided to launch a study which would embrace the entire United States. All six regional associations—The New England Association, The North Central, The Middle States, The Southern, The Northwest, and the Western Association—joined forces in the project. With a view to clarifying the specific issues involved, the following questions were formulated to indicate the objectives of the Study:

1. What are the characteristics of a good secondary school?
2. What practicable means and methods may be employed to evaluate the effectiveness of a school in terms of its objectives?
3. By what means and processes does a good school develop into a better one?
4. How can regional associations stimulate secondary schools to continuous growth?

Each of the six associations undertook to contribute time, energy and money to the project. The program of work was launched in the

fall of 1933, and has progressed with widespread and increasing interest since that date. The financial support which the associations were able to furnish was not, however, sufficient to carry to completion the extensive and intensive study which all members of the Committee felt should be undertaken. Application was therefore made to the General Education Board for assistance, and this was granted. The total amount of money available for the five-year study is approximately $160,000, all of which will be necessary to complete the Study as now planned. It is hoped the task may be finished by the summer of 1938. After it is completed, the representatives of the different regional associations will report back to their respective organizations the findings and recommended criteria for use in whatever manner these associations think best. It is expected that each association will take the tentative criteria and so *adapt* them that they will be of the largest usefulness in each of the six territories. It is not expected nor is it thought desirable for the general committee to formulate standards or criteria which should be *adopted* by all associations. Local study, thoughtful consideration, revision, and adaptation will be the best policy to follow.

Studying All Phases of the Secondary School. The plan adopted and now being carried out is to study all phases of the modern secondary school. Standards, as used at present, have been largely concerned with buildings and grounds, with material equipment, with degrees of teachers employed, and with other items which can be measured quantitatively. This Committee on the Co-operative Study of Secondary School Standards is studying every phase of the secondary school. The first step in the process was that of studying the research literature as found in journals, magazines, books, and masters' and doctors' theses, in order to learn what the researchers had found as to desirable characteristics of a good secondary school. The next step consisted of the organization and distribution of rather elaborate possible criteria or measures of a good secondary school to several hundred men and women interested in education in various parts of the United States. These men and women educators criticised and suggested revisions of these criteria and returned them to the headquarters office which had been opened in the building with the American Council on Education in Washington, D. C. The Committee, with the help of a few outstanding leaders in the field of secondary education, considered all of the material available and developed new sets of criteria and accrediting procedures which were then printed. The third step, the one now in progress, is the use of these tentative evaluative schedules in the intensive study of 200 high schools selected from the various kinds, sizes and types known to secondary education in this country.

The comprehensive as well as intensive study of these 200 carefully selected representative secondary schools as the third step in the work, consists of four different kinds of evaluation. The first part has been the securing of a rather complete report from each school, somewhat more extensive than the regional associations have been requiring. The second phase consists of testing a representative number of pupils in the fall of 1936 with a carefully selected battery of tests. The same pupils will be tested again in the spring to note the progress made during the year. The third phase of this step is that of studying the individual organization and daily work of each school very carefully. For this purpose the schools have been arranged in four groups of approximately fifty each. Four teams of qualified secondary school men were chosen to make the field studies and were scheduled to spend from two to five days in each school. That work is taking the entire school year 1936–1937, and these men are busy at this time in four areas of the country. The fourth phase of the third step is to consist of a study of the product of these 200 secondary schools. When all of the returns from each of these four phases of the third step are available, the Committee will then make the evaluation already suggested and will develop the criteria to be suggested to the different regional associations for their study, further revision, and adaptation.

The Study and the Curriculum. It is not the belief of the Committee that any school should be told what curriculum it should provide for its pupil body. Nor is it the belief of the committee that regional associations should tell member schools what kind of buildings should be provided, what kind of library or equipment should be selected, or the kinds of teachers to be employed. In fact it is believed that a very large amount of responsibility should be thrust back on the school which is asking for evaluation and accreditment. Only in this way can secondary schools be encouraged to work out their own problems and to provide for progressive development up to their highest educational possibilities.

On the other hand, it is expected that the comprehensive study now being made will bring quite clearly to each member some of the individual possibilities which lie ahead of that school. It is also hoped that each school may be stimulated to constant study of its peculiar problems, and to constant growth. In no other way, it seems to the Committee, can membership in one of the regional associations be justified. The idea of placing a school on the membership list merely because it technically meets ten or a dozen narrow standards, and then permitting the school to continue on that minimum level for years, is entirely out of keeping with modern educational

ideas. It is sometimes such a heartbreaking procedure to remove a school from the membership list, once it has gained that coveted goal, that loss of enrollment, loss of staff and general deterioration may go on for years and the school still hold regional recognition. This ought not so to be.

One of the ambitions of the Committee is to develop an extensive and a widely varied program of general procedure with suggestions and evaluative criteria for every phase of the school. The ten standards of the North Central Association cover only a *few* of the desirable features of a good school. Yet a school is warned if violation is discovered in even one of these standards. Also, "Any school warned shall be dropped the following year if the school persists in violating the same standard." This procedure reminds the speaker of a situation in a school he knew some years ago which awarded a physical efficiency badge for pupils who could meet all of the five requirements. If the pupil attained the five standards of physique he was "accredited." One pupil in particular never secured the badge, since he could not chin himself the required ten times. His body was too long and dangling and his arms not equal to the requirement. All his days in that school he suffered the humiliation of being below standard physically, and he looked with envious eyes on the bright badges of the other pupils. That was many years ago and most of the boys and girls who wore the badges as a sign of strong bodies have "passed in their checks." The non-accredited pupil is living on and appears to be strong and well physically. Instead of having five narrow standards for determining good physique, it would have been much more useful to have had fifty or even a hundred desirable criteria, any one of which would have been worth attaining. The badge should have been given to those boys and girls who reached the highest general health level and who were best able to keep up a good health record.

In selecting colleges for membership, the Commission on Institutions of Higher Education has agreed that deficiency in certain respects may be compensated for by superior accomplishments in others. There might be some one way in which a given school could not meet a previously determined standard, or in which the school had as yet not met that particular standard. The school might be a good one despite this limitation. For example: some years ago, about the time this Study was having its beginning, one of the very good secondary schools of the North Central Association was warned for the violation of that part of Standard Seven which requires fifteen hours of professional education. Even though the school concerned had good buildings and equipment, paid good salaries and had an

excellent staff, and was accomplishing the things it had set out to accomplish, the school was scheduled for dropping because two teachers concerned were found to be lacking a few of the required hours in professional education. Meantime, however, this Study had been begun. Members of the Secondary Commission were becoming conscious of the limitations of the standards then in use. When the annual meeting was held, this school was not only not dropped but was restored to full and complete membership for the good work it was doing. It is hoped that that sort of procedure in meritorious instances and in increasing numbers will grow out of the recommendations of the Co-operative Study.

As already indicated, it is hoped that each secondary school will be stimulated to study the boys and girls it enrolls and will then be given full freedom to organize the curricula specially called for to meet the needs of these pupils. The best and most progressive colleges are making a thoughtful attempt to cease prescribing curricula and courses for high schools and are attempting to be helpful to these schools in a co-operative, mutually understanding manner. The results of research studies now available show that it is not the pattern of subjects taken in high school which predicts or guarantees success in college or in other walks of life. We know today that reliance merely on units of any particular subject taken in the secondary school as a promise of success in college is likely to bring disappointment. College admissions officers, in order to select those boys and girls who will succeed best in the institutions they represent, are asking for and obtaining far more information than merely the list of subjects studied or the marks (grades) received in high school. When these alone are used, too many entrance mistakes are made.

As an illustration of the above, the speaker recalls some of the recent discussions of a liberal arts college faculty in their attempt to determine what revisions should be made in their entrance requirements. In the course of these discussions one of their members reported that he had been studying the records of a rather large group of students who had been elected to Phi Beta Kappa. In the course of his investigation of records of their own students, he had discovered that even though the college required only two years of foreign language for entrance, the honor students had presented a much larger amount from the high schools. In fact, he had found that 32 per cent of all those elected to Phi Beta Kappa during the period investigated had presented *four* units of foreign language. The "reporter" did not state, but he did seem to imply, that it might be well to advise the scholastically ambitious pupils to take a great deal of

foreign language in the secondary school. But he neither said that in so many words, nor did he stop there. He said he had also taken a look at the records of a large number of students whose scholastic attainments were so poor that the University had had to send them home. His discovery there was that of all those sent home during that period, 30 per cent had presented the University *four* years of foreign language as part of their high school units.

If the speaker can rightly interpret the ideas of the Co-operative Committee it is their hope that eventually each school, and each phase of each school, asking for recognition, shall be asked to declare its purposes and objectives. That each school shall be required to examine its total organization and to decide what the outcomes for its pupils should be. It is hoped that the regional associations and the colleges individually will gradually yet definitely cease telling secondary schools what they shall do and how they shall do it. With the elimination of the "MUST" from above, it is believed that a more helpful, friendly atmosphere will be developed and that in time these great regional associations may become stimulating laboratories in which all interested in better education may work helpfully together for the best interests of the youth of today.

Conclusion. In conclusion, and by way of indicating a way in which teachers of Speech may have a closer contact with the Study, I should like to raise a few questions such as come to my desk frequently. I do not know the answers to these questions and I do not know that anyone else has all of the answers. But these are questions which are bothering school men active in the secondary field; men who are on the job day after day and who must get things done. It seems to me that this ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF SPEECH ought to be able to help in securing answers for some of the following questions:

1. Why have Speech in the secondary school? Is not this a college subject?

2. If offered, should Speech be recognized as a separate teaching field in the high school?

3. How much and what kind of preparation for teaching should be expected? Should preparation be a requirement?

4. If Speech is desired in the high school and no qualified teacher is available, should the teaching be assigned to members of other departments? If so, to the English teachers, or the Social Studies teachers who have so much to talk about, or to the Language teachers, or to whom?

5. If Speech is recognized as a separate teaching field, who is available to help work out the curricula and courses of study? Or,

what should go into a one-semester course in Speech in the secondary school? Into a two-semester course?

6. Is it advisable to try to offer a full year of Speech in the secondary school? Is there sufficient material available to challenge pupils and keep up their interest for two semesters?

7. Should Debate, Dramatics, Play Production, Oral Composition and possibly Written Composition be taught in the Department of Speech?

8. Should high school units in Speech be accepted in partial fulfillment of college entrance requirements? How many of the 15 or 16 units might profitably be in Speech? Should these be called academic or non-academic units?

9. If only one or one-half unit is taught, how should this credit be accepted by the college admissions officer? Alone? With English? With Social Studies? With non-academic units?

10. Is it possible in a department of Speech in a liberal arts college to organize and offer a general course in Speech which would be so useful to prospective teachers that it might well be required of each? Is this desirable?

These ten questions are but a few of the many which are arising as interest in Speech develops. It is hoped that teachers of this subject in colleges as well as the competent ones already in secondary schools may be of help in finding the right answers to the problems confronting school administrators. The Committee on the Co-operative Study will, I can assure you, do all it can to assist each school to develop the special curricula, teaching fields and courses of study which give promise of being best able to meet the needs of their particular pupil body.

CONVERSATION

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THIS is one unit of a syllabus for the Study of Oral English, based on a series of eight high school units. The other units are: II, Speaking and Writing Paragraphs; III, Explanations; IV, Improving Reading Ability; V, Speaking; VI, Describing; VII, Discussion; VIII, Story Telling.

Unit I: Conversation

I. Objectives.

A. To help pupils realize the necessity for improving their conversation.

B. To help pupils realize that conversation can be mentally stimulating and pleasurable.
C. To help pupils develop a wider range of satisfactory topics for conversation.
D. To help pupils become critical of their conversational vocabulary.
E. To reveal the necessity for improvement in use of voice and in freedom of manner in speaking.
F. To give opportunities for developing the foregoing requisites for good conversation.

II. Procedure and Assignments.
A. References.
1. Barnes, *English for American High Schools,* 14-41.
2. Baker, *Oral English,* 131-143.
3. Tressler, *English in Action,* Book I, 1-8.
4. Canby, Opdycke and Gillum, *High School English,* Book II, 43-52.

B. Introducing the unit to the class.
1. Class discussion. By receiving contributions from the class members, develop a list of reasons for conversing. Help them realize the multitude of uses for conversation.
2. Read in any or all of the above named books the statements concerning the value and opportunities for conversation.

C. Activities.
1. Discover the requirements for a good conversation by answering the following questions:
a. Should we talk about personal matters, such as illness, operations, or accomplishments?
b. Is the weather a good subject?
c. Do people ordinarily talk about worth-while subjects?
d. What worth-while subjects do you like to talk about?
e. Is chatter conversation?
f. Should you monopolize the conversation?
g. How will you draw a timid person into the conversation?
h. What tone of voice should we use?
i. Should we be bold or retiring in our manner of attack?
2. Discover the hindrances and helps to good conversation.
a. Baker, 131-139.
b. Tressler, 4-5, 8.
c. Canby, Book I, 24.

3. Class practice.
   Each day while working on this unit, the class should get conversation practice by using the following arrangement: Divide the class into groups of five or six. Change the groups from day to day. Appoint a different group leader for each conversation practice. Select another member of the group to act as listener and reporter. The reporter should use a definite outline for judging the conversation. Pupils may develop their own score card or check list. The question series on pages 23 and 24 of Barnes are helpful as suggestions, as is the score card on page 35 of Barnes, the score card on page 63 of Johnson and Searcy, and Charters' *Practical Studies in Composition*. At the conclusion of each practice period, hear the oral reports of the critic in each group, and compare score earned by each group.
4. Conversation assignments should be based on topics which will bring about real, not imaginary, conversational situations.
   a. Tressler, pages 3 and 6, supplies many good topics.
   b. Each pupil will be prepared to contribute what he considers an important news item, together with reasons for his choice.
   c. A humorous story day, when each pupil tells his group one or more humorous anecdotes or stories, supplies variety.
   d. Pupils endeavor to induce their group to read a book they have particularly liked.
   e. They report on conversations they have heard, discussing the good and bad points.
   f. School problems, contests, changes in school rules, classes they enjoy and other school topics prove stimulating.
5. Dramatized situations can be raised to a practical level when properly prepared. These succeed best when one group performs and the others listen. Many of these situations cannot be scored by the same standards as social conversation, but those points which are applicable should be used.
   a. Tressler, 7. Perhaps the best list.
   b. Tressler, Book II, 14-16. Telephone conversation.
   c. Canby, Book II, 51-52. Telephone conversation.
   d. Barnes, 23, 25, 27.
6. Introductions.
   a. Canby, Book II, 49-50.
   b. Barnes, 607-9.

Divide the class into groups of five or six with a host or hostess for each group. Each class member impersonates a particular type of person, such as young man, young lady, young married lady, *et al.* Each pupil carries an identification card bearing his name and type of character. This helps the host or hostess to introduce him without the necessity of inquiring from each one his status. The leader in each group introduces each member of the group to the others, and permits proper acknowledgement of each introduction.

The leaders move to other groups and new leaders are appointed. The guest is introduced to all the members of the group he visits. This rotation continues until each person has moved to a group different from the one at which he started.

7. Additional and optional activities.

a. Make a list of time-filling expressions and pet words to be eliminated from your conversational vocabulary, such as: and-uh, then-uh, urr, etc.

b. Make a list of polite expressions for agreeing and disagreeing with others. Baker, 137-38.

c. Work out proper questions for an interview which might be used by a reporter for the school paper, seeking information for an article on interesting summer vacations, or by a student seeking advice from a teacher regarding the course of study for a stenography, engineering, or other occupation. Write the results of such an interview, giving both sides of the conversation.

d. Select from literature some good passages representing vivid conversation.

e. Write a play portraying the benefits of studying conversation. The first act may portray crude expressions, incorrect introductions and unsuccessful telephone calls. The second act may show the same conversation as the first, but with correct usage throughout; or it may show the same characters engaged in activities differing from the first act, but using correct English and conduct.

f. Tell the class about a difficult conversational situation which you have met recently. Which of the lessons learned helped you?

III. Culminating Activity.

A. Write during the class period a paper with the following di-

rections: Analyze your conversational ability on the basis of what you yourself know about it. Where do your personal difficulties lie, in your feeling of timidity, lack of words to express your ideas, lack of ideas, or other hindrances? What do you think you have gained from our study of conversation? Which improvements will you continue to work for?

B. Using fictitious names and impersonating people in different stations in life, gather characters for an imaginary evening reception. Have two pupils act as host and hostess, meeting the other members at the door and introducing them to each other. Each member is responsible for keeping the conversation going.

C. Written test on the outstanding points covered in the unit.

(The writer has used an objective test with success. Through it he has learned points which need re-teaching in the group tested, and points which need improved presentation when teaching other groups.)

EXPERIMENTS WITH SPEECH IN THE NEW HIGH SCHOOL

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West Denver High School

THE academic year 1936–37 will see two experiments carried on at the West Denver High School for the purpose of testing the validity of speech training as a basic consideration in secondary education for all pupils.

The first experiment will involve slow-learning pupils, who, as a result of general social conditions, are forming an ever-increasing part of the student body of every high school. The writer will have charge of the English training of two slow-learning freshman (9B) classes. In one, the control group, the procedure will be of the conventional type, using reading and writing as the principal tools for establishing skills and appreciations in the language. In the experimental group, speech will be used as the chief instructional tool.

The control group will use a basic text, including a large number of written exercises, for the study of the mechanics of the language. For the appreciative phases, several books of "literature" are used

in class study. The conventional course of study suggests that at least one day a week should be used for "oral composition."

The experimental group will use no textbooks. The content of the course will be the problems of the members of the group. Solutions of the problems will be attempted through speech devices with probably not more than one day a week devoted to written work. And language skills and language appreciations will be sought as outcomes concommitant to the procedure.

Problems to be considered will be determined largely through the needs of the group. These needs will be discovered by throwing out a large number of practical questions concerning life in the school, the home, and the community, state, and nation, and observing the interests and reactions of the individual pupils. Some problems that probably will be considered are: the movies and their place in one's life; the use of the radio; applying for a job; asking for a date; talking over the telephone; how to get along with teachers; how to get along with other pupils; conversation at the table, at a party, or in chance meetings with a friend; introductions; newspapers; magazines; the l (school and public); writing letters (business and friendly) rations; notes; filling out applications and order blanks; mentary procedure of a simple type; minutes of a meeting; king to a group for a purpose.

The group will do conventional drill work, and will study problems by dividual investigation, oral and written reports on the results of the investigation, and class comments about the reports. The experimental group, as a first step, will either dramatize the situation or problem to be studied, or discuss it in informal or ordinary group discussion; perhaps both the dramatization and the discussion may be used in some cases. The informal discussion will be followed by some more formal discussion for the purpose of organizing a line of approach or the separate steps to the solution of the problem. Following this will come prepared discussion of available solutions. Then a committee of the pupils most interested in the problem will develop and present a report combining and organizing the various solutions into a single group solution. Lastly we will test, through another dramatization or through written work, our solution. The type of test will depend on whether the problem studied was, for example, conversation at a party or writing a letter of application for a job.

Mr. Guy Fox, Assistant Director of Research and Curriculum at the Denver Public Schools, has suggested the following tests for

measuring the results of the experiment: first, a comparison of scores on I.Q. tests; second, a comparison of scores on a standard reading test; third, a comparison of ratings on written work as measured by one of the standard rating scales for composition; and, fourth, a comparison by two or more competent judges of the responses of the individuals in each class during a period devoted to oral or speech activity. The oral activity may include some study of appreciations of a selection from literature. The second, third, and fourth comparisons will be made both at the beginning and the end of each semester during which the experiment lasts.

If the experimental and control groups show approximately the same growth during the semester, on the basis of the outlined tests, the experiment will have indicated at least that speech techniques are valid for use as a learning tool, and hence that our claims for the value of speech as the core of the secondary school curriculum are not without foundation. If the experimental group is significantly better adjusted to speech situations than the control group, and the control group significantly better in the reading and writing tests than the experimental group, the experiment will not have indicated any very significant tendencies. If such a situation arises, however, there may be possibilities in a study of the individuals of the two classes after they leave high school. If the experimental group shows any significant superiority to the control group in either the reading or writing tests as well as in the oral test, the value of speech as a tool subject will be strongly supported.

Teaching procedures will be limited to those that might be used by any competent teacher, whether or not he were himself trained in speech work. A careful record of procedures will be kept during the experiment, and all will be tested for this limitation before being used. Otherwise the experiment will be attacked on the ground that it indicates only what a speech teacher might do in teaching English to a slow-learning group.

The second experiment will be carried on with pupils in grade 11A, most of whom will be from a class participating in the Aiken experiment of the Progressive Education Association. These pupils are electing speech in lieu of their regular 11A English work. The rest of the class will be selected from the student body at large. This experiment will be in the nature of an investigation of the possibilities of the personality approach to speech training for high school pupils.

Speech personality development is based on the use of the Bern-

reuter Personality Inventory. This test indicates the percentile ranking of an individual in neurotic tendency, introversion-extroversion, dominance-submission, and self-sufficiency. Through a series of experiments and studies at the University of Denver, scores for the "ideal" speaker have been determined. The "ideal" speaker scores in the third quartile in dominance-submission and in self-sufficiency; he scores in the second quartile in neurotic tendency and introversion-extroversion.

In his work with college and graduate students, Dr. Elwood Murray, of the University of Denver, has demonstrated that the scores of individuals can be moved toward the scores of the "ideal" speaker through a series of carefully prepared speech projects. These projects are four in number: a self-analysis of difficulties, an interpretative reading, a panel-discussion or debate, and a part in a play.

An example will serve to illustrate. Suppose that a student's speech behavior is found to be submissive rather than dominant. The pupil will first, with the aid of the instructor, attempt to analyze the basis and reasons for this submissiveness. Then the instructor will choose projects for the student. Perhaps, in this case, an interpretative reading of Ibsen's *An Enemy of the People*—a selection requiring the display of high dominance—will be assigned. If the pupil is able to give this reading successfully, a growth in dominance of personality is evident as a result.

Intensive coaching is of course necessary to assure the all-important success before the group which results in this personality growth. Therefore, there are employed student instructors, or clinicians, for the individual work. During the first semester of the experiment, trained speech students from the University will serve as clinicians; if the technique is found valid for high school use and the course is offered again, students from the experimental class will be used as clinicians in the later classes.

Many of the pupils of the 11A Aiken group have acute personality problems. These problems have been studied through counseling, of course, and through studies in psychology and home economics, without much actual adjustment resulting. It is hoped that such speech therapy for personality maladies will be found to be a practicable means of securing the adjustment desired.

Such experiments, of course, actually prove nothing. They may indicate tendencies. In the process of their working out, some students may find the solution to their individual problems. And most

important of all, these experiments may add in some measure to a body of scientifically valid, educationally practicable procedures that, when complete, will prove speech to be the equal of other socially sig-when complete, will prove speech to be the equal of other socially significant subjects which will form the basis of the curriculum of the new high school.

A ONE-YEAR SPEECH COURSE

ETHEL DYER HAMILTON
Urbana, Illinois, High School

THE course in Speech in the Urbana High School is listed as Speech and not Public Speaking. The aim is to train boys and girls in all speech activities and by so doing to develop personalities. One cannot improve his personality without improving the speech process. It is impossible, likewise, to improve an individual's speaking without improving his personality to some extent. Wth such an aim in mind, we combine the so-called practical and fundamental methods in our teaching.

Practically all students, whether in high school or college, enter the speech class with some degree of fear of "Public Speaking." Many have a deep-grained fear. The first problem, then, is to overcome this fear. To do this, the teacher works with the class as a group for fifteen minutes of the period each day for a week. After the first week, about ten minutes of the class period are used for at least four to six weeks. Students are asked to stand, and as a group, they march, swinging their hands. This is continued for only about two minutes. The group then stands, and together with the teacher does breathing, voice, and body exercises. These exercises vary from day to day. Short informal talks about the use of the body and voice in the improvement of appearance and personality are given frequently, so that the student is made conscious of the value of the exercises. As a group they learn something of a co-ordination of bodily muscles, and the co-ordination of body and voice. Working as a group, they forget self and fear. When there seems to be relaxation and ease within the group, individual work-outs are given and continue for the remainder of the semester.

After the first week, students begin platform work. No attempt is made to correct a student's mistakes this first time. If any com-

plimentary remarks can be made, they are made. After the first speech is given, other speech topics are assigned, all within the pupil's experience, so that his efforts to improve may be primarily concerned with his delivery.

During the first semester, the following phases of a speech are studied in the order in which they are listed: bodily movement, voice, diction and vocabulary, oral interpretation and oral composition. The objective of the first semester is that the student acquire ease in speaking and in reading. A sentence outline is required for every speech or reading he gives from the platform. In the outline he states his subject and the purpose of the speech, and writes three to five sentences around which he builds his speech. The semester problem is the memorizing of an oration or dramatic reading of some literary value.

The objective for the second semester is original speaking. During the first week, the subject of conversation is studied. During the class periods, students meet in groups of five or six, to which they have previously been assigned, with a hostess named. They converse in an informal manner. Two or three students, who are not assigned to a group, accompany the teacher to visit the other students during the period. The visitors pretend to be strangers to everyone except the hostess. Of course, introductions must be made. Here is an opportunity for practical work in social etiquette (previously discussed in class). Two or three subjects of current interest have been assigned the previous day, and the students are asked to be prepared to converse about them. Both students and teacher are pleased with the results.

After conversation comes story-telling. Students relate stories and anecdotes they have heard or read. When a student wishes to tell an original story, he is encouraged to do so, but he is not required to relate an original story. Few adults can do that.

After two weeks spent on story-telling and conversation, problems of the public speaker are discussed. Types of short speeches are then studied and exercises given in all of them. So far as possible, the student is given an opportunity to make his speech in the actual speech situations. For instance, announcements are prepared on current school events and an opportunity given to make the announcement outside the classroom.

The study of the toast and the after-dinner speech always brings up the idea of a banquet. Many average Americans have no public

speaking outlet other than that of giving a toast at a banqeut. The work on this phase of speech terminates in a real banquet, to which not only all speech students are invited, but all who are interested. It is always the greatest occasion of the year. Over ninety per cent of the speech students attend.

The banquet is planned and conducted by the students. The members of the class elect the toast-master and the speakers, and appoint committees. The teacher does nothing but attend. Her work has been done in the classroom. She does not even know what she is going to eat until the food is served. At such a time and place she is able to realize the results of her efforts. The timid boys and girls of the preceding fall are there, beamingly enjoying themselves and even taking part in the program.

After studying types of the short speech, the class takes up group discussion. Practical problems in the committee phase of speech, and in panel discussion are given. A public panel discussion either before the school assembly or before a group of friends is held. The problem of preparation and delivery in the longer and more formal speech is considered.

Debate follows. Everyone in the class must prepare an approved brief. Everyone participates in a formal debate; one debate of six people speaking five minutes each is held each day for a week. The students listening to the debate are asked to evaluate and judge the speakers, as well as the material presented.

The semester project is the preparation and delivery of a ten-minute speech. The subject must be one upon which the student presents the results of his own thinking. Digests of articles read, biographies and book reviews are barred. One month before the speech is to be given, a complete sentence outline is required. Two weeks before the delivery, a well-written copy of the speech is required. The student is asked not to memorize the speech. The only memory work suggested is the thought sequence as stated in his outline. The last six or seven days of the semester are spent in hearing the speeches. The students listening prepare tables of criticism which are given to each student so that he may know what effect he has had on his audience.

In order to tell how parliamentary procedure is taught, it is necessary to go back to the beginning of the second semester. Feeling that any number of days spent studying about motions and committees would make little impression on students, we have worked out a

profitable and interesting method of teaching a very necessary subject. On the first Friday of the semester, the teacher explains to the class the necessity for parliamentary practice, how an organization is formed and about the necessary officers for any organization. The class is then organized into a club. Officers are nominated with the teacher acting as chairman *pro tem*. When the officers are elected, they take charge of the meeting. A program committee of three is appointed by the president. Since there is no time left in this class period, the club adjourns to meet the following Friday at the same hour. During the week the program committee plans a short program to be given by three or four people when the club meets on Friday. Officers hold office for one week only. No one may hold the office of president or secretary the second time until each member of the class has served. In this way the students get much practice in nominating and electing officers. When the nomination speech has been studied, it is used on Friday. Then, too, practically all members of the class have an opportunity to preside and to conduct a business meeting. The assignment for Friday is that each one read some phase of parliamentary procedure. The first assignment is to know what a main motion is and what to do with it. When the club meets on Friday, someone makes a motion. Action is taken. And so, through the semester students read about motions, amending motions, the appointment of committees and their work, the need for and the writing of constitutions and by-laws, after which they put all of these things into actual practice.

We can evaluate what we do only by the results obtained. I believe the results speak for themselves in Urbana High School. It is not enough for the teacher to be pleased with the work that is done in her classroom, for she may be biased in her judgment. But when the students themselves, the administration, and the community are pleased with results in the development of the boys and girls in any given course of study, we may say that it is somewhat successful. The motto here is to develop personality, and to teach boys and girls to meet life problems. Teach the boy and girl to develop in the whole speaking process and in personality and not in public speaking alone.

SPEECH PROBLEMS IN HAWAII

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I

HAWAII has been long recognized as one of the most interesting and workable sociological laboratories in the world, because of its small size, comparative isolation from the rest of the world, ideal spirit of good-will between rival nationalities, and its many clearly defined racial cultures. Necessarily, under such cosmopolitan conditions, the English language, which is the standard speech for the islands, has been subjected to some peculiar influences and has shifted in many ways.

In the public schools of the territory there has been small emphasis placed on clear, intelligent speaking of English, the general feeling apparently being that if the children are taught to write with fair correctness, their speech will take care of itself. Another thing that has complicated the problem has been the fact that there are still many linguistically deficient teachers in the rural schools of Hawaii who would be hard put to it to pass a test in English speech themselves.

Speech has been taught as a curriculum subject in the high schools, and in the University of Hawaii. Dramatic coaches have exerted some influence, and conscientious teachers of English have tried to impress upon their pupils the necessity for clear and grammatical speech. But in spite of these efforts, the fact remains that the general speech of the natives (and by that term I mean the entire mixed population that is born, goes to school, and for the most part spends its life in the Islands) is colloquial, ungrammatical, phonetically displeasing, and often almost unintelligible to an English-speaking person from another part of the world.

In such a universal clearing house of languages as Honolulu, the necessity for a clear, universally acceptable English usage would seem obvious; and yet the necessity for that very thing is often questioned by casual commentators who like a touch of local color even at the cost of intelligent communication, and even by some teachers who are slovenly and insincere in their own profession. I have heard some even defend the local "pidgin" mixture—a conglomerate language made up of an English base with additions of Portuguese, Filipino, Hawaiian, Chinese, and Japanese words—with the plea that where

many nations are gathered together, there should be spoken a language partially understood by each.

The majority of those most closely concerned give the matter no thought whatever. They can make themselves understood after a fashion, and the temperament of the islander is not one of meticulous attention to detail. It is the land of intensified *mañana*. However, if, as is usually thought, the function of language is the accurate transmission of ideas, then something is amiss.

In a consideration of the island speech problems, interesting parallels to the problems of any racially conglomerate group will be immediately recognized. The east side of New York has many of the difficulties with which we contend. Chicago, Pittsburgh, San Francisco are faced with basically the same problem of education in speech. But in Hawaii, because of the peculiar limitations imposed by a total isolation from other communities, and the constant association with each other of the various races, the difficulties are more apparent and more easily classified.

This paper does not aim to present a systematic remedy for the unification and purification of speech in the Islands. It intends rather to make a hasty survey of the field, to discover what may be considered the major problems involved, and to suggest not so much specific solutions as a general method of approach. That there are great problems will not be doubted by anyone who has ever taught in Hawaii. That there may be any cure for them except the slow one of time is a proposition which will not be so generally accepted.

II

Speech deficiencies in Hawaii are of several kinds. Most of them are, of course, directly resultant from home influences. Many students whose speech is poor are found to be from bilingual homes or from homes where only Japanese, Chinese, or Hawaiian is spoken by the parents. (The predominant influence of Japanese is explained by the fact that about thirty per cent of the Island population is Japanese.) But students have been excused too frequently on this ground. There is no reason why, if correctly trained from youth, a person should speak low-grade English merely because he also speaks another language.

But if in the home, as is often the case, the parents who are second-generation foreigners speak only the bastard English known as "pidgin," it is almost impossible for the child to counteract the influence. Its very closeness to acceptable English makes a mixup

inevitable. I have many times been told by oriental students that their parents could not understand correct English, meaning pure, unaided English. If you should say to such an one, for instance, "I hear you've been having some difficulty," he probably would only grin in embarrassment and make mumbling sounds. But if you say, with a rising inflection, "You been have plenty *pilikia,* yeh?" your meaning would be crystal clear to him.

I know from conversations with friends in Japan and with others who have gone from Hawaii to the orient that the second-generation Japanese can with difficulty make himself understood in his own ancestral land, so Hawaiianized has his Japanese become also. One of the Japanese members of the University baseball team told me that when he was touring Japan several summers ago he frequently had difficulty in simple conversations; and yet he had spoken Japanese in Hawaii from childhood, and both his parents speak no other language in the home.

These conditions may be largely the result of the fact that practically all foreigners in Hawaii are only a few generations removed from the humblest class of laborers, and the parents of many of the students who go through high school or even college are often practically illiterate. This, then, constitutes one of the major problems, and from it spring many others. Naturally, most of the improvement in the linguistic level of the home must be brought about through the children, who will be the Americanized parents of the next generation. If sufficient attention is concentrated upon their speech by capable teachers, and by public opinion, this difficulty will undoubtedly be solved.

There has been much excusing of incorrect pronunciation and bad diction in the islands on the basis of physical inability of the people. "Orientals," say some apologists, "are unable to make the *th* [θ, ð] sound. It is not in their languages. It is perfectly natural for them to substitute the *d* or the *t,* and we should be lenient." One who has suffered through conversations in which a student says, "Den we went to dis house an' dere we saw de man dat we tought was him—" etc., will recognize the truth of the analysis. Orientals do substitute the *d* and the *t* for the *th,* and it is a dreadful sin against cultured ears; but we do not admit that it is beyond the ability of the average oriental to learn the softer sound. When we learn French we must acquire the ability to make the French *u* [y], and every student of German must learn the *ch* [ç, x], neither of which is native to English. In several years of teaching I have never encountered a college

freshman, no matter how consistent his offense, who could not be taught the *th* sound in a few minutes. Practice, of course, must follow the initiation.

Unfortunately, it is a fact that students are frequently permitted to get as far as college with almost no checkup in such matters of speech. Because of the preponderance of orientals, such faults have been absorbed into the common language, and are imitated orally by the other nationalities until such offenses have ceased to be orientalisms *per se,* but are merely *Hawaiianisms.* This problem must be met by teachers with the certain knowledge that any child, barring actual physical malforation, has the same ability to make any specified sound as has the next. If he starts doing it early enough in life, it will become his natural and correct mode of expression. The *th* difficulty, then, which is taken merely as an illustration of a whole group of these so-called "orientalisms," is no real physical disability, and should never be so regarded even by implication.

Other things which might be considered physical problems of speech disappear when investigated closely in the same manner. The pitch and quality of voice of the oriental, which, with its tenseness and nasality, is offensive to the westerner, is merely the result of habit and precedent. It is rapidly disappearing among second-generation Islanders. It can be regulated by early influence and conditioned by low-pitched reading and quiet conversation. For all ordinary uses the oriental is capable of speech just as pleasing and agreeably tuned as that of his western brothers. Japanese, Filipinos, and Chinese are not brought into the world with appreciably shorter vocal cords than Americans, but their traditions have developed in tenor instead of bass.

The problem of monotone may generally be solved by an increased understanding of word meaning. If the student is encouraged to think more of what he is saying than how he is saying it, the question of emphasis will usually take care of itself. Another "physical" problem not so easily disposed of is that of bodily poise and inhibited gesture. One must understand something of the oriental tradition back of over-expression if he is to combat successfully this fault. A general course in historical and traditional backgrounds of nationalities would undoubtedly be helpful to teachers. Tactful explanations of customs and reconciliations of newly presented ideas with older conceptions must be made constantly if one is to go far. Certainly a teacher is foolish and unintelligent who will insist to a shy little girl twisting and squirming and making sounds not audible ten

feet away, "Now, Yoshiko, open your mouth wide. Let's see your nice pink tongue when you talk." Little Yoshiko is remembering all the time the thing she has been taught by her old-world mother—that the showing of one's tongue in public speech is almost as indelicate as the displaying of the naked torso!

Mistakes of this kind are most often made by rash and inexperienced teachers recently arrived from the mainland. Fortunately, the island university is now equipped to train elementary teachers, and the importation of unoriented talent is no longer necessary.

The next problem of vocabulary is the "short-cut" word, or "general utility" word. This evil, which is the basis for our most profound criticism of slang, is far more pronounced in Hawaii than it is in the States, and for an obvious reason. The Polynesian language—which after all is the native speech, although in its pure state almost non-existent in the Islands today—has slightly more than a dozen letters in its alphabet, most of them vowels. Until the mid-nineteenth century the language was almost entirely oral, being reduced to print only after the advent of the missionaries. Naturally, the vocabulary which was developed was extremely small, and almost primitive in its lack of fine distinctions. It was full of those words which mean any one of many things. It was the prime language of *double entendre*. Many of these fuzzy, blanket words have been borrowed by speakers of English in the Islands, and have penetrated the idiom to a remarkable extent.

One example, the word *pau*, will suffice. *Pau* means, loosely, "the end." But it is used constantly *ad nauseum* as follows:

"I *pau* now."—I have finished it now.

"He *pau* that job."—He is discharged, or finished.

"Football game all *pau* now."—Either the game has been already played, or is not to be played.

"Sally all *pau* here."—Sally doesn't live here any more! Although the most common pidgin is "Sally no stop now."

"Poi all *pau*."—The poi (a sticky food beloved of old-timers) is all gone.

"His dog all *pau*."—His dog is dead. Here again another word is more common—"His dog *mukee*."

This list might be extended almost indefinitely with illustrations of variant meanings. While a radical excision of such terms from the language is impossible, the child should be encouraged to use them only as occasional reliefs from close defining of meaning.

Pronunciation and accent present some interesting problems in

Island speech, although they are relatively simple of treatment. There are, of course, basic vowel sounds, which have have been perverted by oriental pronunciations, that should be corrected. The short *i* [ɪ] as in *hit* is often sounded as long *e* [i], giving us the atrocious pidgin sentence: "He heet heem weet a steek." The short *oo* [ʊ] sound found in *book* is habitually lengthened to the *oo* [u] of *hoot*. Many pupils have difficulty with the voiced *th* [ð] found in *they*, using instead the unvoiced *th* [θ] of *thick* and *thin*. Inability to produce the voiced sibilant *z* [z] is another common fault of chronic pidgin speakers, who substitute the unvoiced *ss* [s]. Undoubtedly the most annoyingly uncultured perversion of consonant sound is the previously mentioned changing of the *th* [θ, ð] to a single *t* or a *d* sound. This is, of course, the same difficulty that teachers often encounter on the "east side" of any cosmopolitan city. But whereas in most localities the sentence "Dis is de ting I tole you about" is a certain mark of the near illiterate, in Hawaii it is often encountered in the speech of high school or even college graduates.

Mention has been made of the predominant nasality and tenor pitch of the oriental voice. This quality has been largely rubbed out in the voices of second-generation children, except where they have lived constantly in foreign-speaking communities. The Hawaiian language, with its predominance of soft vowel sounds, seems almost perfectly designed to support tone in speech. It is no mere Tourist Bureau claim that the islands are saturated with song, a fact which may have had an effect on the tone ear of the average inhabitant. It would seem that if the attention of the children might be tactfully drawn to the musical qualities inherent in good speech, some improvement in pitch and timbre might be obtained.

Accent is another physical manifestation which has often been considered a serious problem in the culture of Island speech. The characteristic which has come in for the heaviest censure is what is commonly called "The Portugee accent." Actually it is probably a libel on the Portuguese to credit them with the origination of this special trick of inflection. The accent consists of a double inflection commonly practiced at the conclusions of questions. It corresponds so closely to the inflection practiced by stage imitators of British dialect (especially in the question, "Are you there?" in which the *there* is given first a falling and then a rising inflection, as opposed to the single rising inflection of the American) that it might with equal justice be called the "British accent." But for some reason this

particular and rather inoffensive thing has been singled out by many teachers who are more zealous than penetrating in their analysis of speech troubles. By directing the child's attention too much toward these minor divergences which can never be explained rationally to him, they often confuse him as to the real purpose of good speech.

There is still one minor thing in this field that should be commented on. That is the matter of pronunciation and of diction as it is influenced by the various English standards in vogue in Hawaii. The first English to be spoken extensively in the Islands was that of New England. It was the speech of the sailors and the missionaries, who were for the most part from the vicinity of Boston. The language now spoken in the Islands in many ways still resembles that dialect brought by the Yankee colonists almost exactly one hundred years ago. The most noticeable remnant of it is in the almost universal softening of the *r*. Few Island children roll their *r*'s in the frank mid-western manner, although generally they give it slightly more emphasis than does the dialectic southerner. Another characteristic probably from the same source is the broadening of the *a* something after the "Harvard" manner. This, however, may be largely from the Latinate influence of the Portuguese and Filipino element, or even from the Scottish influence which was at one time strong among Island planters.

Sources of these deviations from what might be called the American standard of speech are not important. Any attempt to force a rigid standard on children, merely because it happens to be the teacher's own habit of speech, is fraught with immediate peril. Admittedly it is confusing to a child to hear one teacher say *ever-r* [ɛvər] and the next say *evuh* [ɛvə] but those are optional decisions which must be left to the ear of the pupil. Until we as adults can agree on a standard for such things, we have no intelligent reason for insistence. The task is to demand clear, fairly pure English which can be understood easily wherever educated speakers of the language converse. Minor points of emphasis had best be left to professional speakers.

III

Speaking to the students of Kamehameha Boys' School in the fall of 1933 on the subject of *Good Speech*, I made the generalization that so soon as boys felt that it was the "thing to do" to speak correctly, in other words, that good English was in style, we should have little trouble with pidgin English in the schools. The instructors at Kamehameha with whom I later talked, who have the problem

presented to them daily in its most aggravated form, agreed with me entirely; that the problem is fundamentally a psychological rather than a mechanical one. It is to a tentative statement and analysis of that problem that I wish to direct the remainder of these comments.

In the first place I realize that it may sound incredible to one who has never met the situation that many high school and even college students may be really ashamed of correct speech—ashamed to the extent of consciously mutilating their language in order to avoid the censure of their fellows. However, this is actually the case in Hawaii. Students who are capable of speaking with fair grammatical and idiomatic correctness in a classroom will go outside and immediately lapse into the most lamentable pidgin atrocities. The contention might be made that in such a case there is no problem: if they can speak correctly when the need arises, their ability to speak another idiom is merely an indication of versatility. Perhaps this would be true were it not for the fact that often the student comes to look upon correct speech as a sort of classroom exercise which must be practiced under certain conditions at certain times academic, and is never needed otherwise. When he has been out of school for a few years, the student often retains no more of his ability to speak correctly than he does of his ability to work problems in higher calculus. His classroom exercise is forgotten!

In the University of Hawaii I have had many college freshmen tell me that they were ashamed to speak correct English among a majority of their friends. "They'll call me high-hat. Pansy." As a rule, these students do not represent the cream of the higher strata of society; but on the other hand they are not ignoramuses and they are usually perfectly sincere. And they form a large part of the student class of the Islands. It is important, then, that one should recognize clearly the existence of this problem and should be in something of a sympathetic frame of mind toward those who will be affected by its solution. One must realize that frequently, in the society in which they live, standard English of our "correct" quality is not only unusual—it may be considered by friends a positive breach of etiquette, a social pretense as antagonizing as is the Oxford accent of a sophomore just home from one year in England!

By analyzing a few of the reasons for this condition, we may clarify the situation and perhaps arrive at a few aids to the psychological approach which I have intimated is the most pertinent at the present time. It would seem to be obvious that much of the damage is done in the early school days, which are spent perforce in an im-

perfectly intellectualized city. But the high schools and the University cannot entirely evade the blame. The idea of the "early, formative years" has been stressed far too much by many experimental psychologists. We know that every year of a student's life is formative. There is much that can be done to change habits of conduct, of which speech is probably the most prominently exercised, even after a person has finished his formal schooling. One need only think of the rapidity with which a whole school of the "Oh yeah?" type of slang will be adopted and discarded within a few months by millions of Americans to realize the susceptibility of the adult to current vogues in speech habits.

For sake of economy and clearness, it may be well for me to state what I consider the chief reasons for the problems of speech peculiar to cosmopolitanism, especially in Hawaii, and to discuss each briefly.

First: The question of birth.

Roughly speaking, most of the children who have speech difficulties are only the second or third generation removed from another native language. In the oriental families there still remains something of a patriarchal system, the grandparents and young children often living in a very close communal group. The children are thus forced to adjust their manners to a much older society than that of their school. The majority of the foreign emigrants to Hawaii has always been of the lower working class, many of whose members are illiterate in their own language. Thus they have few cultural advantages to offer their children. In addition to this misfortune, pidgin English for many of the second-generation orientals is the *only* comprehended speech. One can't shrug off the necessity of the youngsters to communicate with their elders in some medium, and where pidgin is the only available medium, it must be countenanced to that extent.

For this difficulty, if there is to be any improvement there seems only the partial remedy of bilingualism. The children must be taught to speak correctly among themselves, and allowed to speak incorrectly with their pidgin-speaking relatives. It is a poor solution at best, however, and should be allowed only in extreme cases. But the teacher should in no event maintain heatedly, as have some, that "Pidgin is a low, vulgar language which only beach boys and coolies use!" In the first place, the child knows the teacher is prevaricating, for he has probably heard some of the wealthiest men of the Islands talk pidgin; and in the second place, it is certainly poor psychology to intimate to a child that his antecedents are crude, uncouth, and vulgar. An oriental child is constantly detecting in a fairly polished

westerner things that to him are as ill-bred as any habit of his may seem to us, and for which he is too innately courteous to reprove us. With the passing of this older generation of relatives, the necessity for this dual code of speech will disappear.

Second: Legitimate bilingualism.

This is a thing which has contributed in no small degree to the problems of the oriental child in Hawaii. There are in the Islands a great many Japanese and Chinese day schools to which children are sent daily for an hour or two of instruction in their native language, after or before their work in the English public school. In many cases the sympathy of the parents is naturally on the side of the language school, and they are distrustful of this new-fangled American education. It is probable that many of the Japanese, in particular, would not go to the English schools were it not, loosely, compulsory. Although there are undoubted cultural advantages inherent in the language school, the problems of the English school teacher are undoubtedly increased by the constant drain upon the student's time and energy exerted by the language school with the parental sanction.

The remedy is, of course, apparently the abolition of the language school, and the substitution of general cultural and language classes in the standard public schools for the work formerly done by the other institutions. This is a solution which may not be blithely proposed, however, by a Honolulu resident. The nationalistic feeling is still very strong among many members of the yellow race, and the question of language school abolition is one that has been for a long time charged with nitroglycerine.

Third: Laxness of speech in those who should be examples.

The responsibility here rests, of course, to some extent on all persons appearing in public speech—ministers, radio announcers, legislators (who touch intimately the common man in democratic Honolulu), and other public entertainers. But here again the greatest responsibility lies upon the teachers. In the absence of parental examples, they are by far the most influential. In the past, many Island teachers have been allowed to instruct the young when their own speech was of exceedingly low grade. Those teachers are gradually being weeded out and approximate standards of speech fixed for new applicants. Here again the situation must be handled with extreme care by the educational administrators, for the ramifications of the teaching profession in Hawaii are many and devious, and no one may with impunity go about the rooting out of incompetents in

an arbitrary manner. His usefulness will be short-lived. Tact is as necessary in handling teachers as it is in the handling of students.

Fourth: The lack of any strong conviction that it is to the material advantage of the average person to speak correctly.

The romantic or idealistic approach has been employed altogether too much in trying to deal with this problem in Hawaii. The young people of today, especially after they have felt the goad of poverty, are generally frank materialists. The first thing they ask when we request a change in their habits is "What will it get me?" Such a person will never be greatly moved by an appeal to speak better English (and include in that *better* both pronunciation and grammar) because "Really cultured and refined people, dear, don't speak in that horrid, vulgar way!"

If we are to secure action from the average young person in the matter of speech, it will be rather in response to the fact that "Last week the manager of the Hawaii Department Store fired three men because he couldn't afford to have his clerks talking to customers like cane-field workers!" Of course this method must be conditioned always by tact. Teachers should if possible make the students feel that they are being given a choice of dialects, one of which has tremendous material advantages over the other. The child should be dealt with individually when possible, and sweeping generalizations avoided. The ordinary pupil is observant enough to realize that many people who are highly successful in a material way are also users of faulty English, and sometimes the young mind is inclined to look upon carelessness of speech as a contributing factor to success, instead of a handicap in spite of which success was achieved. The point should at some time be straightened out for him.

In a few cases, it may be that the romantic appeal can be made successfully, although usually that will be the case only when the child is essentially a snob and wants to be superior. It is dangerous, for he may infect all of his playmates with the news that "Teacher said that only vulgar children talk the way you do!" The teacher's chances with the remainder of the flock will be greatly reduced immediately thereafter.

Fifth: A definite lack of an "intellectual society" of young people in Hawaii.

This applies more particularly to high school and college students from very humble homes, who have never been dipped into the surface froth and gaiety which swirls around the tourist trade at Waikiki. It is the problem which most interests me personally, and con-

cerning which I am most deeply concerned. It is, I firmly believe, the most vulnerable point of attack on the pidgin dialect.

In his stimulating book, *The Psychology of Persuasion,* William Macpherson states: "For most of us, the strongest motive to belief is furnished by the herd instinct in one form or another. We tend to accept as true the opinions and beliefs of the herd, or that portion of it with which we are in most intimate contact, and to reject antagonistic beliefs as untrue."

This near truism contains a deal of indubitable wisdom for those dealing with speech problems in Hawaii. What it means in practice is that we must in some way create for the average student a nuclear herd instinct for better speech. In other and quite plain words, we should segregate as often as possible the students from those who are not in the process of being educated. There should be no nonsense concerning democracy on this point. Democracy is no more involved than it is when we put anything which has been entrusted to our care in the most advantageous place for its development: a tender plant in a corner sheltered from adverse winds, a young animal among others of its approximate size and disposition, or a small child among playmates who will not ridicule his attempts at achievement.

The old trial-and-error method of self-education has been discarded because it was too wasteful of natural energies. The only excuse for organized education is the fact that it eliminates much of the trial and most of the error, and presents the condensed result of past experience. If past educational experience has taught us anything, it is that the ordinary student learns more from congenial, helpful example than he does from strong derision and contempt for his efforts. One way, then, to overcome this shame in the use of correct English is to remove the student as often as possible from the "old gang" which thinks that such usage is a mark of weakness and affectation.

This statement may be construed as an ultra-conservative argument for class restriction. Perhaps it is that, but it is restriction in a worthy cause, and I am confident that the benefits will overbalance the ills. When the sheltered sapling is grown to self-sufficient strength, it can be transplanted in the open forest.

Small, informal (and occasional semi-formal) parties where a majority of those present are fairly proficient users of the language, and where the diffident and inexpert speaker will hear around him, spoken casually, the language forms he should use, are extremely val-

uable. Where it is possible, of course, students should be encouraged to participate in class discussions, even occasionally at the expense of squelching the bright talker of the class who loves to weave spells with his gab.

It is a large order, I know, and not easily made specific, for such groups must be stimulatingly chaperoned by persons who know what they are about and have the welfare of the students at heart. The chaperons must, moreover, be clever enough to avoid any hint of the inhibiting classroom stiffness which always lurks in the vicinity of a teacher. It becomes, in the last analysis, largely a matter of unconscious social etiquette which can be imparted, even as table manners, only by friendly and unaffected example. I have seen wonders worked in the attitude of students merely through a few congenial lunches and friendly talks with faculty men who had no idea whatever that they were being used as the background for an experiment in speech culture. And as stated earlier, if we can once make the student feel that he *should* use correct speech, the battle is half won.

IV

Fundamentally, the task before the teacher is to stimulate some of that cultural life that has been missing in the extra-curricular life of the student. All the suggestions which have been made are directed at that primary result. The thing should be started, of course, as soon as teachers come into contact with the young children. Familiarity with a few books should be encouraged, and in every possible way some sort of background of literature built up. Hawaiian youngsters enjoy *Typee, Omoo,* and others of Melville's books. Scott and Cooper go well with them, too, but not the more austere "classics." The idea that clear expression is the servant of all trades and professions should be inculcated, with only minor emphasis on speaking as an art. As often as possible the point should be made jovially and good-naturedly rather than with sarcasm, or even with extreme firmness. A child usually gets the point with surprising quickness, and the method is far more pleasant for everyone concerned.

Teachers should not be afraid to bring the question of correct speech out into the light. It should be discussed frankly and not with the fearful hush with which our parents used to refer to the "unpardonable sin!" Fewer feelings will be hurt by open discussion than will be founded by clandestine inference. There is no reason for keeping from grade-school pupils the fact that there are still many disputes among "authorities" concerning some points of grammar and

pronunciation, word usage and style. They will learn of it soon enough anyhow, and if we are ahead of them with the information, we may save them a deal of confusion and ourselves much trouble. A more human attitude toward the whole subject of correct English would not hurt the average teacher—especially the teacher who must teach grammar and rhetoric.

If the teachers of Hawaii realize their responsibility in this matter of speech, and combine an admirable liberality of precept with a fairly severe attitude toward themselves as models, we shall hear within a few years a remarkable change in the speech of the average Hawaiian.

A LARYNGO-STROBOSCOPE AND COMMENT UPON DR. WEST'S REFERENCE TO SAME

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IN HIS interesting article, "A View of the Larynx Through a New Stroboscope," Dr. Robert West, of the University of Wisconsin, makes certain references to our development of a new physiological stroboscope, which, we fear, must convey an erroneous impression to the reader. We described this stroboscope in an article published in *Science* in December 1934, under the title, "A New Physiological Stroboscope." Dr. West's footnote gives the title inadvertently as "The Physiological Stroboscope" and the tenor of his remarks might lead the reader to believe that he is discussing the stroboscope we described in this article.

To obviate the danger of this error, we take the liberty of pointing out that the instrument which Dr. West talks about is not ours. It is a primitive form which we were compelled to discard at the very beginning of our experiments because we found it to involve stroboscopic errors, which, judging by his article, appear to play some part in Dr. West's conclusions.

First, Dr. West mentions a microphone suspended at some distance from the subject under observation. This permits an atmospheric impedance between the source of sound and the pick-up mechanism. The physics of sound in atmosphere is sufficiently complex

for instrumental differentiation under normal circumstances, but to complicate it further by adding to it the complexity of a varying atmosphere is to multiply the consequent error many times. It may be argued that the distance of a few inches or a few feet is relatively small, but Dr. West's article attests that he accomplishes *a change in phase* of the stroboscopic image by moving the microphone closer to, or further away from, the subject.

Second, in listing the elements comprising his stroboscope, Dr. West mentions as the essentials thereof only a microphone, an amplifier and a Neon tube. Dr. West does not designate the type of microphone he uses, but it is to be noted that most of them have a peaked resonance frequency corresponding to the physical dimensions of their diaphragms. When vocal sound is directly impressed upon such a mechanism, amplified, and its output then delivered to a glow discharge tube, the result will be a composite illumination output colored by the response irregularity of the mechanism involved in pick-up and amplification. When the stroboscopic glow thus achieved is focused upon the vocal cords, the resulting stroboscopic image is exceedingly poor, undefined, and non-selective, unworthy of even the poorest mechanical stroboscope. The important element lacking in Dr. West's assembly is *the filter* whereby the fundamental frequency, or a harmonic thereof, may be selected and this frequency alone enabled to control the time length and periodicity of the light flash.

In stroboscopy, the duration time of the light flash plays a most important part in the definition of the objective. It is to overcome the time lag inherent in the filamentary type of lamps that a gaseous discharge type of illuminator is used. But, even when employing a gaseous discharge lamp, it is necessary to provide its associated electrical system with a quenching mechanism whereby the hysterisis in the system is reduced to a minimum. The major hysterisis probably resides in the glow lamp itself when the conditions under which it is operating are such as to bring about maximum illuminating brilliance from its discharge. This is clearly understood when the physical laws governing the electrical discharge in gases are focused on handling the problem. A definite breakdown potential, determined by the physical constants of the gas, its pressure, the material of the electrodes, their size and separation, is requisite to the illumination discharge. After breakdown, the potential may be sharply lowered without affecting the discharge. If the power amplifier supplying the potential to the discharge device is incapable of complete cut-off at the termination of

each energy cycle, the slight trickle of current persisting thereafter is sufficient to continue the discharge in the lamp and thus extend the flash beyond the period of its cyclic motivator. Dr. West indicates no means for controlling this important factor and it is inconceivable that he should without such control be able to achieve a stroboscopic view of acceptable definition.

Another element omitted in Dr. West's reproduction of our instrument is the electrical phasing mechanism. This is accomplished by a variable time-delay consisting of capacitative and inductive networks introducible at will by the observer and capable of presenting pictures at any selected point throughout each cycle. The microphone can scarcely be used to accomplish this, for the slightest movement on the part of the subject would vary the picture. In our apparatus the air-gap is entirely eliminated, and the microphone, in fact, a fremitus pick-up, is fastened securely to the subject.

Another element of importance in the study of the mechanism of phonation by stroboscopy is a means whereby a "slow motion" view of the moving cords may be attained. For this purpose we employ an oscillator as part of our apparatus. By setting a calibrated dial on the front of the instrument, an interference frequency is introduced into the circuit whereby the periodicity of the glow lamp is maintained at a frequency plus or minus any predetermined cyclic number. Thus, the movement of the cords, slowed down to one cycle per second, or any other figure, can be observed.

Clearly, observations made with an instrument unprovided with the safeguards we have designated could not help being of a debatable accuracy. Error would be inherent in the very instrumentation and involved in the related physical fundamentals. Dr. West's article seemed to us to give evidence of such error of observation.

Laryngoscopy of a normally phonating larynx reveals the vocal chink not as closed, but as having a width of 0.25 to 0.50 mm., and margins which are ill-defined. By itself, this fact allows for no conclusion as to the direction of the cordal vibrations,—whether parallel or perpendicular to the direction of the activating breath stream. A stroboscopic view of these vibrations, however, under conditions in which the stroboscope and the vibration frequency are in concord, shows the cords as flush together, as nearly flush, or as separated by a gap of one or more millimeters. What is seen depends on whether the open or closed position of the glottis, as related to the cords' vibratory excursion, is caught by the illumination. Although no con-

dition yet exists which allows for conclusions as to the direction of the cordal vibration, it certainly shows that the breath stream is periodically interrupted. The hypothesis that the cordal vibrations occur in the direction of the expiratory breath stream, cannot account for the observed width of the glottic chink. This has been proved by mathematical analysis. On the assumption that direction does account for width, the theoretical values of the width of the glottic chink are incongruous with the observed values. on the other hand, the two values are quite compatible, with a lateral vibration movement of the cords. (The width of the vocal chink is double the amplitude limit of one cord.)

As the observations of many investigators have shown, the shape of the vocal cords is such as to make an acute angle at their under-surfaces. This holds in the living specimen, even when the thyro-arytenoid muscles are not contracted. Contracted, these muscles cause the cords to hump and round so that they look "padded," and thus give the pressure of breath on them a better *point d'appui* at the inclined under-surface. This configuration favors the sidewise movement of the cords.

That the vocal cords are wedge-shaped is of course well-known. The question is, then, given the shape, what will be the effect of breath compression? The simple application of the rule of the parallelogram of forces shows that the vocal cords must describe a movement upwards and outwards, executing only half-vibrations, since when they come back to their starting point they collide. There is no justification, hence, for assuming that the cordal vibrations are even simple up and down movements in the direction of the breath stream, let alone their being alternating ones. The assumption that they are alternating ones contradicts the mechanics implied by anatomic relations, a mechanics corroborated by actual observation of cordal behaviour in the living. Any experiment from which the assumption is derived must necessarily have failed to reproduce the conditions which it attempts to explain.

It is important, however, to bear in mind that the processes producing the same tone in different registers can be very different for each register. A falsetto tone depends on a configuration of the cords and the vocal chink quite different from that underlying a chest tone. Stroboscopy during falsetto tones shows that the cords no longer touch each other, that they seem to have a lesser mass, that their margins are more sharply defined, that a wider or narrower gap, elliptic

in form, separates them. Chest-register tones are associated with movements of the cords that alternately open and close the vocal chink, but the falsetto register tones go with a vocal chink, open even during the maximal approximation of the cords; the cords alternately widen and narrow the glottic chink, but never close it.*

The foregoing observations permit the inference that the cords vibrate in these two registers in fundamentally different ways, and preclude the possibility of simple vertical alternating vibrations under conditions as they *normally* exist in the larynx.

Under *abnormal* conditions the case is different. Abnormal conditions are pathologic states within the larynx. Impressions of alternating vibrations of the vocal cords have been reported in a variety of conditions under which each vocal cord was in a different state of tension from its mate. Among such conditions are catarrhal laryngitis, unilateral paralysis of the recurrent laryngeal nerve, etc. Reports of alternating vibrations are especially noticeable in connection with the second condition—paralysis of cord. But in these cases also, the weight of the evidence is against a regular constant periodic alternation of vibration of the two cords. It points rather to a fluttering verticality of movement (in the direction of the expiratory breath stream) of the pathologically conditioned cord. Such a movement may give an impression of alternating vibration, without any such actual vibration being there. Now in our judgment, Model B in Dr. West's experiment reproduces a situation analogous to an intra-laryngeal pathologic state, and this accounts for the phenomena reported.

We turn now to the contention that Model B is more logically analogous to the human larynx than A. The reason given is that changing the length of the tube has no effect on the vibrator, whereas in the case of Model A it has. It is declared that this property of Model B explains why the same tone can be taken by a human larynx regardless of whether individuals are "long or short necked" . . . In

* We do not forget reports of the stroboscopic observation of the entire vocal chink closure in falsetto register and high head tones. But we call attention to the possibility, in these reports, of confusion of terms. Some writers have used "falsetto" and "head registers" practically as synonyms; others to distinguish certain vocal qualities. The general consensus seems to be that the vocal tone associated with chest register corresponds to a mass vibration of the vocal cord, while in the vocal tones associated with falsetto register, the cordal vibration is more or less marginal, depending on frequency and amplitude of the vibrations. Cf. Desider Weiss: "Die Laryngostroboskopie," *Z. f. Laryng., Rhin., Otolog. u. Ihre Grenzgeb.*, Bb. 22, H. 5–6, p. 391 (1932).

addition, attention is called to the behavior of the manometric flame, under impact from tones in Model A and Model B. Model A, when intoned, causes one hump to appear in the flame, whereas Model B causes two humps, the two-humped form being like that caused by the human voice.

The data, in our view, do not permit such conclusions. We hold them to be an error of analogy. We have not found the situations in the experimental larynges to correspond to the actual situations in the human larynx. In the human larynx there exist—

1. Compensatory mechanism for adjusting the relationship between pitch and pressure. This mechanism has a bearing on the length of tube, as that is related to the pressure necessary to vibrate the cords.
2. Dynamic connection with a resonance cavity. This also has a bearing on vibratory functions in coupled systems.
3. Equality of tension in both cords.

Dr. West's Model A lacks both compensatory mechanism, (1), and resonance cavity, (2). It is the absence of this mechanism which makes necessary a specific length of tube. Without the resonance cavity, the tendency is to produce a simple wave-form uncomplicated by a partial due to a cavity resonating with the model. This lack it is which accounts for the single hump in the manometric flame.

Dr. West's Model B again lacks not only the compensatory mechanism and the resonance cavity, but also equality in tension in both cords. The absence of the last can readily account for the two-humped smoke.

In sum, observing the behavior of a smoke column in a mechanical set-up, Dr. West argues by analogy to the behavior of the vocal cords. But the mechanical set-up lacks essential features which would justify the analogical inference. It might prove reasonable to assume that under pathological conditions the cord which has the lesser tension flutters up and down, so that the glottic opening appears now above the more tensed side and now below it, and observers have reported this. (See above.) When the glottic opening is above, the smoke is expelled to the healthier side (the more tensed one); when it is below, the smoke is expelled to the diseased side (the less tensed one). Under these conditions an observer can easily get an impression of two streams of smoke forming an angle with respect to each other at the point of emission, and have an illusion of alternating vibrations of the two sides.

We submit that the conclusion cannot be avoided,

1. That the stroboscope Dr. West describes is mechanically deficient in operative elements without which it is impossible to make an objective record and a scientific interpretation of the views of the cords it presents.

2. That in his experiment Dr. West was led by the behavior of his variable (the smoke) to overlook the limitations of his artificial mechanism and thus to propound that the smoke column is a visual representation of the pressures within the vocal chamber and at the cords.

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THE FORUM

Editor of the QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH:

Through the pages of the QUARTERLY JOURNAL in recent years there runs increasing reference to "a new system of extra-curriculum speech activities," namely the student speaker's bureau. Some institutions, Arizona State College, for example, view it as an entertainment bureau. Others, like Miami University, view it as a substitute for debate, with most of debate's virtues and few of its vices. Still others, like the University of Tennessee, by abandoning debate entirely and concentrating on this "new" activity, consider that they are approaching the coveted goal of making "The state . . . the University's Campus."

Other institutions are looking across at the green pastures of this "new" field—for fourteen in the past year have directed inquiries to the Wabash College Speaker's Bureau alone—wondering how fertile a field it really is, and whether it is a worth-while substitute for formal debate. May I, therefore, summarize the results of our experience with the Speaker's Bureau at Wabash and offer it as a small exhibit for those who are interested?

In preface I may add that we have had twelve years of experience with such a bureau. Ours is, I think, the oldest in the country; at least it was started in 1924, and for three years, without a formal organization, we experimented with announcing student speakers and booking their schedules; then nine years ago we organized an official bureau with a director and the machinery of operation. At that time we had never heard of such an organization in any other institution, and in the three years following we were asked for information about it from approximately fifty other schools.

In considering the results at any institution, obviously weight must be given to the type of school and its type of constituents. A state university, for example, will aim at a slightly different goal from that of a rigidly liberal arts college like ours. A co-educational institution will have available talent different from that of a man's school like ours. And a university located in a large city will have potential audiences of interests different from ours, since we are

located in a small city, yet within easy reach of more than a dozen cities of medium population. To illustrate, we tried to include book reviews and one-act play readings, but our audiences did not want them; yet Butler University in nearby Indianapolis found one-act plays to be a singularly popular feature. We offered a list of outright sermons with great hesitancy, but found them to be surprisingly popular in neighboring small towns. We also offered debates on current issues, expecting to get only a few calls. Instead, we had many calls for them, although their popularity has never equalled that of other types of speeches, and many types of audiences did not want them at all.

Nevertheless, certain factors appear common to speaker's bureaus, and certain general conclusions seem warranted. And so for better or worse, and be they right or wrong, these are here submitted:

1. *Should such an activity be limited primarily to an entertainment bureau?* Our experience suggests not. We may pass over the question of whether any educational activity ought to be limited to mere entertainment, or whether its foundations should be sunk into more solid ground. Considered only from the shorter view, it seems unwise. The purpose of a speaker's bureau—to which all other purposes are subordinated—is to offer intensive experience to students of superior ability. Obviously not all students are fitted, either by temperament or personality, to be entertainers; and those not fitted are automatically disqualified from benefit. Furthermore, a mere entertainment bureau offers no training in the methods of persuasive discourse. Literally adhered to, it would exclude eighty per cent of the field of speaking and concentrate on the twenty per cent, and the least important twenty per cent at that. Finally, audiences show, in our experience very positively, a decided preference for instructive subjects, and a bureau which supplies this want will receive more calls and send out more speakers than one which does not. In short, if a speaker's bureau wants to offer intensive experience to its students, it will concentrate on serious and instructive subjects. Indeed, some institutions like the University of Cincinnati have excluded pure entertainment entirely from their lists; and as a municipal university which must be sensitive to taxpayer's reactions, this doubtless is wise. We have been tempted to do this also, but because entertainment broadens the scope and offers a few students experience which they would not otherwise obtain, we have kept it on a restricted basis.

Other private institutions, like Northwestern, seemingly have reached the same conclusion.

2. *Does a speaker's bureau offer an adequate substitute for debating?* Again, in our experience, no; emphatically no. Formal debate offers a training in rigorous logic which, in our experience, a speaker's bureau cannot equal.

Here is a student, let us suppose, invited to discuss limitation of Supreme Court powers before a Kiwanis Club. He must loosen a joint here and there in his framework of argument and cover the structure with a padding of human interest. Evidence must be diluted or even supplanted, with illustrations, and inferences here and there bridged with an epigram. All of this—or else the speaker's bureau loses a client!

But this is invaluable training, you say. Of course it is. It is the most valuable training a speaker's bureau affords, beside which all others are insignificant. "I've found out one thing," said a student after his first experience on the bureau. "Those people aren't like classroom students. *You've got to hold them!*"

That alone earns the bureau its right to exist, but it does not prove that debate has lost its right. After a dozen years of experience with a bureau, I think others will find what we have found: that the price you pay for unrelieved attention to audience interest (and you have to hold it, or you lose all your clients!) tends to be a slight softening of attention on hard, logical rigor, analysis, briefing, and relating the last shred of evidence to the proposition. Not much softening perhaps, and it may not disturb all teachers; yet it is there.

And so if you believe—as I do—that the intense training in logic to be found in good debating is of any value to the student who must some day face courts with argument, or must file briefs, or if you hold it to be a discipline in the refinement of every student's powers of thought, then you will not discard debating. You will rather covet for your students the opportunity to stand from time to time before a critic judge (and you will not care whether there is anyone else in the audience *but* a critic judge) and test his articulate reasoning. "Give me debate as a discipline for reasoning," wrote a brilliant young lawyer ten years out of college. "There is nothing that equals it in the curriculum today."

But does not a speaker's bureau place the speaker under a greater responsibility for using honest evidence? Instead of rejoicing in foot-loose freedom and irresponsible pyrotechnics, will he not be

sobered by facing a real audience? I have read that this is so, even in the pages of learned periodicals. Certainly it is true that facing a real audience sobers a student speaker, but I have not found a lack of sobriety among debaters. I do not know what kind of debating it is that encourages foot-loose freedom. At least I have met it in college debating so rarely that I cannot consider it common. In our experience, students are quite as careful in checking evidence when they are to go with an opposing team before a critic judge, as when they are to stand before the taxpayer's association. "I think this evidence is all right," I heard a debater say last spring, "but I am going down to the State Library next Saturday to check it up anyhow." That is what debating, good debating, does to a student.

As for the notion expressed somewhere among the pages of the QUARTERLY JOURNAL that the reward for debate is the privilege of speaking as far as possible from the state, that it fosters a neglect of local problems, and that for this reason debate should be supplanted entirely by the speaker's bureau, we have not found it so. If speaker's bureau topics have dealt with subjects of compelling interest to local audiences, so in a fair degree has debate. Because, for example, an audience is concerned with its local electric rates, it does not follow that it is insensible to what is being done in Washington about public works. Fifty percent of our debates are with teams inside the state, and thirty percent of our speaker's bureau addresses are given outside the state. In this crossing of state lines we have not found that the farm problem is basically different in Indiana from that in Iowa, or that the pressure of unemployment produces a different response in Michigan from that in Illinois.

Indeed, if there were significant differences, we should *want* our students to go abroad once in a while to learn how the gentiles live, which of their needs are pressing, and to what ideals they aspire.

In short, this has been our experience on the relative merits of debating and speakers' bureaus as an extra-curricular activity: The bureau interests a type of student that does not care for debating. It trains him in types of speeches—entertaining, informative, inspirational—outside the scope of debate. It throws every speaker before real audiences and renders him more sensitive than the debater to capturing audience attention. It drills speakers in adapting subjects to the tastes and beliefs of many different audiences. But it lacks the discipline of severe logical training and articulate reasoning to be found in debate. Each has its place. Neither displaces the other.

3. *How expensive is a speaker's bureau to operate?* No question has been more frequently asked than this one. Happily, it is practically no expense at all. You can run it a whole year on the fee it takes for a single critic debate judge. Our budget is $20 a year. It has been $20 a year for nine years. We might have got more, but we do not need it. Each semester we spend $3.50 for printing and $6.50 for stamps and envelopes. A college stenographer types the envelopes and we mail the announcements to a selected list of two hundred organizations.

On the circular we state that the speech itself is free, but that an organization desiring a speaker is expected to furnish transportation or to reimburse the speaker for traveling expenses. We have never heard the least objection to paying this expense. In fact, we feel that our speakers have got a better reception than if the college had paid their expenses, for in that case there might have been the feeling now and then that we were promoting the bureau for collge publicity. A state or municipal university, of course, might be expected to deliver its speakers free at the door, but we are a private school on which neither church nor state can hold strings.

Now and then we have speakers who work in the evenings and must hire substitutes when they are away for a speech. When this is explained to the people that want the speech, they have never hesitated to pay for the substitute. Nor do they object to paying mileage on a rented car for a trip of 150 or 200 miles; and one audience paid the expenses on a round trip of 550 miles.

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To the Editor of THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH:

May I submit a note on theses possibilities in the history of the theater, calling attention to three provinces, really ours, which are very inviting for doctorate dissertations, and which are being "worked" by "sister" departments.

First, the compilation of records regarding the theatricals of a given city between certain dates: the listing of theaters, performances, plays, producers, and actors. Good examples recently have appeared in studies of theaters in Philadelphia. Such dissertations involve monotonous paging through thousands of newspapers, programs, and other records, but they are thoroughly worth-while contributions to our annals of the American stage.

Second, the reconstruction of the acting of an era from references in the plays of that era. One would include here, also, stage business, methods of production, etc. A little has been done in this field by such scholars as W. J. Lawrence, but the possibilities are limitless. Even Shakespeare has not been adequately covered. The criteria on acting laid down in Hamlet have been made so prominent that they have eclipsed similar comments in Richard III, Troilus and Cressida, and in other plays. Outside Shakespeare the province has been scarcely touched.

Third, the study of early editions of plays with a view to finding stage directions, hints on acting, stage properties, costumes, etc. In the Shakespeare quartos and early folios, for example, one finds much more material of this type than in later editions. The 1597 quarto of Romeo and Juliet contains such directions as the following:

> He, (Romeo), offers to stab himself, and Nurse snatches the dagger away.
> Nurse offers to goe in and turns again.
> Paris offers to goe in and Capulet calles him againe.

For scholars with plenty of patience and with good eyesight, there will be rich rewards for such study. A number of our libraries, such as the Folger, and the Huntington, and the libraries at Harvard, Michigan, Columbia, etc., are particularly well equipped with these early editions of plays.

Doubtless something is being done in these fields in Departments of Speech but, probably, not enough. If we do not, others will. In fact, they are already at work.

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EDITORIALS

There was no usable elementary school material submitted in time for this issue. Material for the April issue will be welcome. It should be sent in at once.

There is only one article on high school speech teaching in the JOURNAL files. The April issue needs four or five additional articles.

It is a matter of observation that the minutes of the Executive Board of the NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF SPEECH and the reports of the National Committees reflect rather faithfully the matters uppermost in the thought of the members of the ASSOCIATION. It follows, then, that the minutes and committee reports of the successive annual meetings of the Executive Board form a history of the intellectual evolution of our national body. It accordingly seems likely that the members at large will be interested in many of the items of business of the ASSOCIATION. A summary of transactions at the St. Louis meeting follows:

Note: the minutes and committee reports published *in toto* would fill a moderate-sized issue of the QUARTERLY JOURNAL. The following is, therefore, necessarily condensed. A complete mimeographed report may be seen by conferring with any member of the Executive Board.

I. Meeting of the Executive Council, Statler Hotel, St. Louis, Missouri, December 28, 2 P.M.

1. Annual financial report by Executive Secretary Densmore. This report showed the finances of the Association to be in an extremely healthy condition. Portions of the report follow this summary as Appendix A.
2. Statistical analysis for the current year submitted by Secretary Densmore. This analysis parallels the financial statement in revealing an almost unbroken condition of growth in membership, income, and activities. A very few items from this statistical analysis follow this summary as Appendix B.
3. G. E. Densmore re-elected as Executive Secretary for a term of three years.
4. Clarence T. Simon, Chairman, Committee on Research, reported the progress of his committee.
5. H. L. Ewbank reported for W. N. Brigance, Chairman, Committee on Joint Research in the History of American Oratory.
6. Glayds L. Borchers, Chairman, reported for Committee on Advancement of Speech Education in Secondary Schools. The work of this committee has been a matter of central interest for the whole ASSOCIATION membership. Extracts from the report following this summary as Appendix C.

7. J. Richard Bietry, Chairman, reported for Committee on Speech Education in Junior Colleges. Mr. Bietry then resigned as chairman and Mrs. Sylvia D. Mariner was elected in his place. Reference to this committee's report is made as Appendix D.
8. Mrs. Jane Dorsey Zimmerman, Chairman, reported for Committee on Speech Education in Teacher's Colleges and Normal Schools.
9. Gladys L. Borchers reported for Ralph Dennis, Chairman, Committee on Co-ordination.
10. H. L. Ewbank, Chairman, reported for Committee on Radio Speaking. Items from this report appear as Appendix E.
11. Bower Aly, Chairman, reported for Committee on Standards. The work of this committee, like that of the Committee on Advancement of Speech Education of Secondary Schools, has become very important in the attempt to increase the prevalence of high school speech work. Comments on the committee's report appears as Appendix F.
12. Ray K. Immel, Chairman, reported for Committee on Voice and Diction.
13. C. M. Wise, Editor, reported for the QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH,
14. Motions were made and carried that the National Directory of Teachers of Speech and the Teacher Placement Service be continued; that Editor Simon be empowered to publish Volume IV of Speech Monographs; that the ASSOCIATION confirm its previous convention itinerary by holding the 1937 convention in New York, and the 1938 convention in Chicago; and that the ASSOCIATION recognize the Committee on Relationship of Speech and English, composed of Gladys L. Borchers, Mr. Mulgrave and J. M. O'Neill.

II. General Assembly, December 29, 9 A.M.

1. President Maud May Babcock reported action of Executive Council.
2. C. M. Wise, Editor, reported the status of the QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH.
3. Nominating committee elected for 1938, consisting of Charles Layton, J. M. O'Neill, A. T. Weaver, W. H. Yeager, Ralph Dennis, Chairman.
4. The following-named officers elected for 1938: President, Herbert E. Wichelns; First Vice-President, A. Craig Baird; Second Vice-President, John Casteel; Council members: Ralph B. Dennis, J. M. O'Neill, Letitia Raubicheck, Lousene Rousseau.
5. Resolution adopted commending highly the services of Secretary Densmore, calling attention to the fact during his incumbency that the assets of the Association have increased 142% and the membership 151%; that the QUARTERLY JOURNAL has as a result been able to increase in size; and that the annual publication of Speech Monographs has been instituted, the annual Directory published, and a Teachers Placement Service set up.
6. A resolution was adopted affirming faith in the value of awards for actors and actresses in talking pictures and pledging support to Ray K. Immel in his plans for these awards.

III. Executive Council Meeting, Dec. 31, 5 P.M.

1. Ellen Henderson, Chairman, reported for Committee for Speech Education in Elementary Schools. Report referred to later as Appendix G.
2. Lee Norvelle, Chairman, Committee on Relations with the National Education Association, reported progress. Referred to later as Appendix H.

3. Proposal for a board of the ASSOCIATION for certifying speech work in colleges and universities referred to President-elect Wichelns; proposal to publish convention papers in a volume of Proceedings, referred to President and Executive Secretary; Executive Secretary empowered to increase rates for advertising and convention exhibition space; motion carried approving establishment of the American Educational Theatre Association and its recognition as a subsidiary section of the ASSOCIATION.

APPENDIX A

FINANCIAL REPORT OF THE EXECUTIVE SECRETARY

BALANCE SHEET, AS OF DECEMBER 15, 1936

Cash on hand	$1,285.71	
Accounts receivable (less doubtful accounts)	1,913.16	
Inventories of stock at cost	5,351.36	
Inventories of supplies	255.70	
Total Current Assets		$8,805.93
Fixed Assets (office equipment) less depreciation		616.79
Total Assets		$9,422.72
LIABILITIES AND NET WORTH		
Accounts Payable	$1,245.61	
Net Worth: Surplus, December 15, 1935	7,210.83	
Profit for Current Year	966.28	
		$9,422.72

INCOME SHEET, FOR THE YEAR ENDED DECEMBER 15, 1936

Income from Publications:		
Membership-subscriptions	$8,055.06	
Bulletins	302.50	
Monographs	458.75	
Journals (single copies)	236.50	
Directories	496.50	
Advertising	2,676.39	
Total		$12,225.70
Cost of Sales:		
Inventory, December 15, 1935	$4,422.21	
Purchases, Journals	4,817.79	
Monographs	606.78	
Directories	687.26	
Bulletins	140.00	
	$10,674.04	
Less: Inventory, December 15, 1936	5,351.36	
Total cost of publications sold		5,322.68
Gross Profit on Publications		$6,903.02
Expenses:		
Journal distribution	$ 622.12	
Sustaining Membership services	233.62	
Sales Promotion	1,804.49	
Collection Expenses	771.36	
Office Expense	3,431.89	
Total expenses		$6,863.48
Net Profit on Publications		$ 39.54
Other Income:		
Convention receipts	$1,677.00	
Placement Service receipts	430.00	
Binding QUARTERLY JOURNALS	30.00	
Total other income	$2,137.00	
Less expenses		
Convention expense	$666.95	
Placement Service	349.54	
Officers' expenses	193.77	
Total other expenses	1,210.26	
Net other income		$ 926.74
Total net profit		$ 966.28

COMPARATIVE FINANCIAL POSITION
As of December 15, 1936

	December 23 1931	December 13 1932	December 19 1933	December 13 1934	December 15 1935	December 15 1936	Increase or Decrease*
Cash on hand	$ 529.44	$1,127.73	$ 827.38	$1,556.08	$1,410.64	$1,285.71	$ 124.93*
Accounts receivable	472.95	572.00	576.49	534.16	706.26	1,913.16	1,206.90
Inventory of publications	2,041.10	2,102.00	2,392.90	2,818.84	4,422.21	5,351.36	929.15
Office supplies on hand	224.05	125.00	143.13	208.25	222.49	255.70	33.21
Office equipment	103.00	247.50	298.37	435.51	449.23	616.79	167.56
Accounts payable						1,245.61*	1,245.61*
Total assets	$3,370.54	$4,174.23	$4,238.27	$5,552.84	$7,210.83	$8,177.11	$ 966.28

APPENDIX B

MEMBERSHIP ANALYSIS

TABLE I

RELATIVE ANNUAL TOTALS OF MEMBERSHIPS BY STATES FOR 1933, 1934, 1935 AND 1936, AND RANKING ORDER OF STATES BY GAIN FOR 1936.

	1933	1934	1935	1936	Gain
Alabama	14	22	31	36	5
Arizona	10	13	13	20	7
Arkansas	7	14	25	32	7
California	188	182	226	259	33
Colorado	18	33	49	57	8
Connecticut	8	17	23	28	5
Delaware	0	0	1	3	2
Washington, D.C.	17	17	27	30	3
Florida	18	25	30	36	6
Georgia	16	20	22	26	4
Idaho	5	10	14	14	0
Illinois	102	158	239	283	44
Indiana	63	61	98	145	47
Iowa	53	67	110	133	23
Kansas	41	53	86	102	16
Kentucky	17	17	25	39	14
Louisiana	12	41	53	51	—2
Maine	7	11	13	18	5
Maryland	—8	11	16	19	3
Massachusetts	42	54	78	81	8
Michigan	97	135	206	252	46
Minnesota	58	61	81	113	32
Mississippi	6	16	24	27	3
Missouri	49	60	95	152	57
Montana	7	16	22	19	—3
Nebraska	13	20	45	63	18
Nevada	5	4	4	3	—1
New Hampshire	7	6	7	9	2
New Jersey	46	67	76	78	2
New Mexico	4	5	9	18	9
New York	203	269	339	413	74
North Carolina	14	11	20	33	13
North Dakota	6	8	13	15	2
Ohio	81	113	155	240	85
Oklahoma	19	27	46	74	28
Oregon	23	22	38	43	5
Pennsylvania	85	125	154	196	42
Rhode Island	4	8	12	19	7
South Carolina	1	3	5	11	6
South Dakota	21	27	33	36	3
Tennessee	16	25	36	49	13
Texas	53	94	147	170	23
Utah	19	29	31	37	6
Vermont	3	4	5	8	3
Virginia	12	23	32	43	11
Washington	28	34	42	59	17
West Virginia	14	15	24	40	16
Wisconsin	69	82	123	146	23
Wyoming	2	6	7	8	1
Foreign	28	20	26	32	6
TOTALS	1639	2161	3031	3818	787

Rank	State	Gain
1.	Ohio	85
2.	New York	74
3.	Missouri	57
4.	Indiana	47
5.	Michigan	46
6.	Illinois	44
7.	Pennsylvania	42
7.	California	33
9.	Minnesota	32
10.	Oklahoma	28
11.	Iowa	23
12.	Texas	23
13.	Wisconsin	23
14.	Nebraska	18
15.	Washington	17
16.	Kansas	16
17.	West Virginia	16
18.	Kentucky	14
19.	North Carolina	13
20.	Tennessee	13
21.	Virginia	11
22.	New Mexico	9
23.	Colorado	8
24.	Massachusetts	8
25.	Arkansas	7
26.	Rhode Island	7
27.	Arizona	7
28.	Florida	6
29.	Foreign	6
30.	South Carolina	6
31.	Utah	6
32.	Alabama	5
33	Connecticut	5
34.	Maine	5
35.	Oregon	5
36.	Georgia	4
37.	Washington, D.C.	3
38.	Maryland	3
39.	Mississippi	3
40.	South Dakota	3
41	Vermont	3
42.	Delaware	2
43	New Hampshire	2
44.	New Jersey	2
45.	North Dakota	2
46.	Wyoming	1
47.	Idaho	0
48.	Nevada	—1
49.	Louisiana	—2
50.	Montana	—3
	Total	787

MEMBERSHIP ANALYSIS

TABLE II

DISTRIBUTION OF MEMBERSHIPS ACCORDING TO POPULATION

Rank by Population*		Rank by Memberships		Rank by Percentage**	
1. New York	(125)	1. New York	(413)	1. Utah	(73)
2. Pennsylvania	(96)	2. Illinois	(283)	2. Washington, D.C.	(62)
3. Illinois	(76)	3. California	(259)	3. Colorado	(55)
4. Ohio	(66)	4. Michigan	(252)	4. Iowa	(54)
5. Texas	(58)	5. Ohio	(240)	5. Kansas	(54)
6. California	(56)	6. Pennsylvania	(196)	6. Michigan	(52)
7. Michigan	(48)	7. Texas	(170)	7. South Dakota	(52)
8. Massachusetts	(42)	8. Missouri	(152)	8. Wisconsin	(50)
9. New Jersey	(40)	9. Wisconsin	(146)	9. Arizona	(46)
10. Missouri	(36)	10. Indiana	(145)	10. California	(46)
11. Indiana	(32)	11. Iowa	(133)	11. Nebraska	(46)
12. North Carolina	(31)	12. Minnesota	(113)	12. Indiana	(45)
13. Wisconsin	(29)	13. Kansas	(102)	13. Oregon	(45)
14. Georgia	(29)	14. Massachusetts	(81)	14. Minnesota	(44)
15. Alabama	(26)	15. New Jersey	(78)	15. New Mexico	(43)
16. Tennessee	(26)	16. Oklahoma	(74)	16. Missouri	(42)
17. Kentucky	(26)	17. Nebraska	(63)	17. Washington	(38)
18. Minnesota	(25)	18. Washington	(59)	18. Illinois	(37)
19. Iowa	(24)	19. Colorado	(57)	19. Ohio	(36)
20. Virginia	(24)	20. Louisiana	(51)	20. Montana	(35)
21. Oklahoma	(23)	21. Tennessee	(49)	21. Wyoming	(35)
22. Louisiana	(21)	22. Oregon	(43)	22. Nevada	(33)
23. Mississippi	(20)	23. Virginia	(43)	23. New York	(33)
24. Kansas	(18)	24. West Virginia	(40)	24. Idaho	(31)
25. Arkansas	(18)	25. Kentucky	(39)	25. Oklahoma	(31)
26. South Carolina	(17)	26. Utah	(37)	26. Texas	(29)
27. West Virginia	(17)	27. Alabama	(36)	27. Rhode Island	(28)
28. Maryland	(16)	28. Florida	(36)	28. Florida	(25)
29. Connecticut	(16)	29. South Dakota	(36)	29. Louisiana	(24)
30. Washington	(15)	30. North Carolina	(33)	30. Maine	(23)
31. Florida	(14)	31. Arkansas	(32)	31. West Virginia	(23)
32. Nebraska	(13)	32. Washington, D.C.	(30)	32. North Dakota	(22)
33. Colorado	(10)	33. Connecticut	(28)	33. Vermont	(22)
34. Oregon	(9)	34. Mississippi	(27)	34. Pennsylvania	(20)
35. Maine	(7)	35. Georgia	(26)	35. Massachusetts	(19)
36. South Dakota	(6)	36. Arizona	(20)	36. New Hampshire	(19)
37. Rhode Island	(6)	37. Maryland	(19)	37. New Jersey	(19)
38. North Dakota	(6)	38. Montana	(19)	38. Tennessee	(19)
39. Montana	(5)	39. Rhode Island	(19)	39. Virginia	(18)
40. Utah	(5)	40. Maine	(18)	40. Arkansas	(17)
41. Washington, D.C.	(4)	41. New Mexico	(18)	41. Connecticut	(17)
42. New Hampshire	(4)	42. North Dakota	(15)	42. Kentucky	(15)
43. Idaho	(4)	43. Idaho	(14)	43. Alabama	(14)
44. Arizona	(4)	44. South Carolina	(11)	44. Delaware	(13)
45. New Mexico	(4)	45. New Hampshire	(9)	45. Mississippi	(13)
46. Vermont	(3)	46. Vermont	(8)	46. Maryland	(12)
47. Delaware	(2)	47. Wyoming	(8)	47. North Carolina	(10)
48. Wyoming	(2)	48. Delaware	(3)	48. Georgia	(9)
49. Nevada	(1)	49. Nevada	(3)	49. South Carolina	(6)

* Five ciphers omitted

**Ten thousandths of 1%

THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF SPEECH

December 15, 1936

STATISTICAL RECORD

1915–1936

TABLE I

RELATIVE ANNUAL TOTALS OF MEMBERSHIPS

1915....160	1920....700	1925....1100	1930....1520	1935....3031
1916....210	1921....635	1926....1130	1931....1600	1936....3818
1917....287	1922....880	1927....1240	1932....1959	
1918....390	1923....863	1928....1300	1933....1639	
1919....482	1924....910	1929....1290	1934....2161	

TABLE II

RELATIVE ANNUAL TOTALS OF SCHOLARLY PAGES PUBLISHED

1915....324	1920....387	1925....437	1930....655	1935....795
1916....423	1921....412	1926....490	1931....742	1936....841
1917....368	1922....408	1927....509	1932....725	
1918....467	1923....410	1928....628	1933....558	
1919....412	1924....430	1929....644	1934....707	

TABLE III

RELATIVE ANNUAL TOTALS OF ADVERTISING PAGES SOLD

1915.....24	1920.....20	1925.....29	1930.....71	1935....176
1916.....40	1921.....19	1926.....39	1931.....82	1936....213
1917.....35	1922.....25	1927.....36	1932.....90	
1918.....23	1923.....27	1928.....47	1933.....78	
1919.....16	1924.....19	1929.....53	1934....135	

TABLE IV

RELATIVE ANNUAL TOTALS OF ATTENDANCE AT CONVENTIONS

1915....Chicago 60	1925....New York 177
1916....New York 80	1926....Chicago 314
1917....Chicago 87	1927....Cincinnati 212
1918.....*	1928....Chicago 354
1919....Chicago 105	1929....New York 400
1920....Cleveland .....**	1930....Chicago 508
1921....Chicago .....**	1931....Detroit 430
1922....New York 115	1932....Los Angeles ...378
1923....Cincinnati 175	1933....New York 443
1924....Evanston 216	1934....New Orleans ...385
* No Convention	1935....Chicago 914
** No Record	1936....St. Louis 659

ST. LOUIS CONVENTION ATTENDANCE ANALYSIS

Alabama	3	Maine	1	Oklahoma	13
Arizona	2	Maryland	2	Oregon	2
Arkansas	7	Massachusetts	2	Pennsylvania	13
California	23	Michigan	45	Rhode Island	0
Colorado	13	Minnesota	23	South Carolina	1
Connecticut	1	Mississippi	1	South Dakota	4
Delaware	0	Missouri	121	Tennessee	10
Washington, D.C.	3	Montana	0	Texas	14
Florida	1	Nebraska	7	Utah	8
Georgia	3	Nevada	0	Vermont	0
Idaho	1	New Hampshire	1	Virginia	3
Illinois	65	New Jersey	7	Washington	5
Indiana	31	New Mexico	1	West Virginia	2
Iowa	33	New York	29	Wisconsin	38
Kansas	33	North Carolina	2	Wyoming	2
Kentucky	5	North Dakota	3	Foreign	2
Louisiana	30	Ohio	43		
				Total	659

APPENDIX C

The Committee for the Advancement of Speech Training in Secondary Schools states its aims as: (1) to obtain a complete picture of the amount and nature of speech training in the secondary schools of the United States, and (2) to improve and extend speech training in the secondary schools.

In pursuance of its first aim, it is building a file listing all secondary speech teachers in the United States through the assistance of a very large committee, headed by Miss Clara Krefting, Baker University; it has received complete surveys of secondary school speech work from Arizona, California, Colorado, Delaware, Florida, Idaho, Illinois, Indiana, Kentucky, Maine, Minnesota, Oregon, Pennsylvania, South Dakota, Texas, Washington, West Virginia, and Wisconsin; and it is making use of an investigation by Paul J. Ritter emphasizing the academic and professional training of teachers of speech.

In pursuance of its second aim, it has published a tentative course of study in the April, 1936, QUARTERLY JOURNAL—a work which has already had profound influence in unifying thought on the nature of secondary school speech teaching; it has ascertained that high school courses of study in speech have been published by Arizona, California, Louisiana, Michigan, Mississippi, New Mexico, New Jersey, New York, Oklahoma, Oregon, South Dakota, Texas, and Washington; it reports that one to nine units of high school speech may

be accredited in Wisconsin, one year in Tennessee, and three years in Louisiana, and that there is a new liberalizing of entrance requirements in Illinois; it is co-operating with the Progressive Education program; it planned an exhibit for the annual convention and a junior forum discussion program designed to be ultimately nation-wide; and it has assisted the Editor of the QUARTERLY JOURNAL by submitting a large number of articles suitable for high school teachers.

APPENDIX D

The Junior College Committee reports that having learned of a WPA survey of junior colleges under the direction of Mrs. Sylvia D. Mariner, of Oklahoma City, Oklahoma, it determined to join forces with Mrs. Mariner. It accordingly submits Mrs. Mariner's report in lieu of a separate report of its own. This report includes the results of a questionnaire submitted to 518 junior colleges. It is nineteen pages long and can therefore hardly be summarized here. It covers enrollments, faculties, curricula, equipment, teacher preparation, extracurricular activities, and the like, in detail. An account of the survey will likely be published later, either in the QUARTERLY JOURNAL or in the *Proceedings* of the convention.

APPENDIX F

This report details the work of the large Committee on Standards set up at the 1935 Chicago convention. The committee, particularly through its chairman, Bower Aly, has been exceedingly active. It has through a long series of meetings and through much correspondence maintained a continuous relationship with those conducting the Co-operative Study of Secondary School Standards—a project jointly sponsored by the six great regional accrediting associations and financed by the General Education Board, Mr. Aly's committee participated in the revision of the Tentative Check List of Secondary School Standards, which was one of the first tangible results of the nation-wide Co-operative Study, and was able to call favorable attention to the need to recognize Speech among other studies included in the Check List. Mr. Aly secured from Mr. M. L. Alstetter, of the Co-operative Study staff, an article, *What May Speech Teachers Expect of the Co-operative Study of Secondary School Standards*, which was published in the October, 1936, issue of the QUARTERLY JOURNAL. He also secured as speaker on the Co-operative Study, George E. Carrothers, whose address appears elsewhere in this issue. The committee has raised with W. C. Eells, co-ordinator of the Co-operative Study, the following questions:

1. Should every elementary and secondary school teacher who is licensed after 1938 be required to show evidence of having met a minimum standard for the good speaking voice?

2. Should every elementary and secondary school teacher of literature who is licensed after 1938 be required to show evidence of having met a minimum standard of ability in the oral interpretation of literature?

3. Should every person who is licensed to teach or direct dramatics in elementary or secondary schools be required, after 1938, to show evidence of having certain minimum qualifications for this work?

4. Should every person who is licensed to teach or direct debating in elementary or secondary schools be required, after 1938, to show evidence of having certain minimum qualifications for this work?

5. Should every secondary school accredited after 1938 be required to include on its staff some one person who is especially prepared to assist students in the improvement of the speaking voice?

6. Should every person who is licensed to teach one or more courses in Speech in the secondary schools be required, after 1938, to show evidence of having certain minimum qualifications in the field of Speech?

The committee submits the following recommendations:

1. The Executive Council should adopt a policy based on the assumption that the problem of standards is, at the present time, the most urgent problem before the NATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

2. The Committee on Standards should be reconstituted (with the President of the NATIONAL ASSOCIATION as Chairman and active head of the Committee) to include representatives from the various regions served by the following-named accrediting agencies:

North Central Association
Northwest Association
Western Association
Middle States Association
New England Association
Southern Association

3. The newly constituted committee should include representatives from elementary and secondary education as well as persons from institutions of higher learning.

4. The new committee should be in a position to make representations in regional and local situations as well as in those national in scope.

5. The new committee should be given a budget within the means of the ASSOCIATION for the proper conduct of its affairs.

6. The new committee should be charged definitely with the following-named responsibilities:

a. The ascertaining of teacher-preparation requirements for the teaching of Speech and speech subjects under the laws, rules, and regulations of each of the several states.

b. The ascertaining of teacher-preparation requirements for the teaching of Speech and speech subjects under the practices of the various accrediting agencies.

c. The determination of a desirable minimum standard of preparation in Speech for teachers of Speech.

d. The determination of a desirable minimum standard of preparation in Speech for teachers of English, Social Studies, and other subjects, particularly in the elementary and secondary schools.

e. The solicitation of assistance from the United States Office of Education in the making of needed investigations concerning standards in speech instruction.

f. The co-operation with the Study of Secondary School Standards and any other agencies engaged in similar endeavor.

g. The consistent and persistent, but tactful, representation of the claims of Speech as an academic study before all properly constituted agencies.

APPENDIX G

The Elementary School Committee reports having worked at the following-named projects:

1. Made the first and second drafts of a course of study for speech activities in the elementary grades.
2. Answered letters and sent out materials to those who have sent inquiries.
3. Planned to increase the membership of elementary teachers in the NATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

a. (Prepared a booklet which was distributed at the N.E.A. Convention at Portland in June and July.)

b. Made arrangements for a day of exhibits and demonstrations to be held Monday, December 28, in one of the St. Louis City Schools.

c. Planned a program for the St. Louis Convention.

4. Took steps to get an elementary department in state and regional associations.

The committee recommends that:

1. All regional and state speech associations be contacted to secure greater interest in elementary speech training.
2. Every effort be made to secure the co-operation of school executives and teacher-training institutions.

APPENDIX H

The Committee for Co-operative Research reports negotiations with David H. Stevens of the Rockefeller Foundation, in which Mr. Stevens suggested that specific projects be outlined and presented to the Foundation. The committee has made a similar approach to the Carnegie Corporation.

APPENDIX I

The Committee of Affiliation with the National Education Association reports having ascertained that affiliation with the N.E.A. would not cause the Association to lose its standing as a learned society, nor change its financial status. Its members would, however, be expected to maintain individual membership with the N.E.A. in considerable numbers.

CONTEMPORARY SPEECHES

DEMOCRATIC CAMPAIGN SPEECHES

IF THE results are any indication of the effectiveness of their speakers, the Democratic Party had this year the best collection of campaign orators since 1820. People are moved, of course, by other forms of persuasion beside speeches, but measuring the overwhelming Democratic victory against the control of eighty percent of newspaper circulation by the Republicans, there is no escaping the conclusion that the Democratic speeches were the more effective. Finding the newspapers against them, the Democrats took to the stump, and won.

Not only because he was the President but also because he was the best speaker, Franklin D. Roosevelt led the Democratic speakers. It is increasingly necessary for a national candidate to be a good radio speaker, and the President is the best in the country. All commentators were universally agreed that he was far better than his opponent. His excellent radio voice was fully analyzed by Charles H. Voelker in the October, 1936, issue of the QUARTERLY. In addition to his extraordinary vocal equipment, he has an excellent conversational quality in his speaking; he makes himself the number one guest in every living room.

The President is an able rhetorician, and no doubt an article will appear in the QUARTERLY in the near future analyzing his technique more fully than space will permit here. He has a lively sense for the concrete and the specific; he uses antithesis, cumulation, and restatement, and his speeches usually build up to well defined climaxes. He is a skillful coiner of effective phrases, such as "moral defectives," "economic royalists," the "good neighbor." He has an easy grasp of the general materials of a speaker, literary allusions, historical facts, proverbs and maxims. With all of these abilities, he can even make erosion and water tables interesting. It would be amazing if the President found time to prepare his speeches without assistance; but if his speeches are ghost-written, either he works over in his own way the materials collected for him, or else the ghost writers are most skillful at imitating the Roosevelt style, for only in the occasional

addresses can ghost-writing be detected. Rumor has it that he reworks the material which his staff collects for him.

The best two speakers in the Cabinet who took an active part in the campaign seem to me to be Henry Wallace and Cordell Hull. Both speak as men who understand fully the problems of their positions. Secretary Hull's speeches on the tariff seemed to me near masterpieces of exposition. It may be significant that both of these men, both able speakers, are mentioned as candidates for President in 1940.

The Democratic speeches were, on the whole, defensive rather than offensive in quality—the speakers did not present any coherent party program for the future, but rather they attempted to meet the attacks of the Republicans upon their past program. In doing so, they were not above the *ad populum* argument; Wall Street and the Liberty League came in for a full share of discussion. In spite of the defensive character of the argument, it must have produced considerable popular education upon labor legislation, social security, agriculture, and the new tariff policy. It is unfortunate that the Supreme Court was not brought into the discussion more than it was.

DAYTON D. MCKEAN

WIN WITH LANDON AND KNOX

GOVERNOR LANDON and Colonel Knox together delivered nearly 450 speeches in the recent campaign and they lost a total of 523 electoral votes. This statement may illustrate a *post hoc* in view of what we now know—that the American people intended to re-elect President Roosevelt regardless of his opposition. And yet from a critical point of view, it is safe to say that the Republican candidates lost votes every time they spoke. To the student of contemporary speaking, their addresses, studied as written compositions and as delivered efforts, comprise a practically complete catalogue of the faults of bad speaking. Taken together, the Landon and Knox speeches may be recommended to students and to the 1940 Republican candidates as sound examples of what not to do in political oratory.

Beginning with his acceptance speech on July 23, 1936, at Topeka, Kansas, Governor Landon made a total of about 175 speeches. Of these, eighteen were major addresses delivered in twelve states. He

also made seven radio speeches of less importance in seven different states. They were usually from fifteen to twenty-five minutes in length and were delivered from the campaign train. In addition, some 140 or 150 short talks of from one to five minutes duration were made from the rear platform and generally in smaller towns and cities.

Since I was not in the actual audience at any of Mr. Landon's speeches, I probably cannot in fairness judge the qualities of his speaking delivery. However, of the speeches that I listened to over the radio, the one delivered at Madison Square Garden on October 29 impressed me as direct, forceful, animated, and intelligible. But this was an exception, and during the preceding three months I had a feeling that whoever was coaching the Governor was waging a pretty hopeless struggle. In fact, prior to this New York speech, even Republicans complained that their candidate's voice was monotonous and colorless, his manner heavy and tiresome. He frequently hesitated and stumbled into queer pronunciations. All this, of course, was in sharp contrast to the confident and urbane delivery of Mr. Roosevelt.

In viewing the range of ideas of Landon's speeches and the methods of proof of the so-called issues, a strange patchwork attempt to please all interests and offend none is presented. Two of the more crude and fumbling efforts are found in the Minneapolis speech dealing with the effects of the Canadian reciprocity treaty, and the Milwaukee speech on social security. In this latter speech Governor Landon relied for proof on what he apparently regarded as a final report on the Social Security Administration by the Twentieth Century Fund. It later developed that the report was in the nature of a preliminary survey and had not even been accepted by the sub-committee making the investigation. This was but one of the many instances throughout the campaign which showed up the sloppy research work of Landon's literary staff. It was left for Secretary Hull to demonstrate clearly that the Landon economic advisers were not up on the price of cheddar cheese, that they were ignorant of the status of babassu nuts in the Hawley-Smoot tariff, and that their researches into cattle prices needed a little more expert interpretation. The general impression now remaining of Landon as a speaker is that he seemed an earnest little man discussing subjects he did not understand.

Colonel Knox delivered a total of 271 speeches. They may be classified thus: fifty-four addresses, twenty-six secondary, and 191

rear-platform talks. Sixty-one of these speeches were broadcast, including all but three of the major speeches. The Democratic candidate for Vice-President, by way of contrast, made one speech during the campaign. If the magnitude of Colonel Knox's speaking tour set a new high in election oratory, the quality of his speaking probably set a new all-time low. Teachers of speech who want to give their students a day of relaxation should assign Colonel Knox's Labor Day speech at Alma, Michigan, to be read aloud. It starts off: "I am in the midst of a journey of 22,000 miles—" and proceeds by a chain of forced associations from the glories of the Michigan educational system to marriage, the Spanish-American war, American civilization, the machine age, higher education, college faculties, history repeats itself, I am one of you, and so on and on to the peroration: "You will vote for and follow in overwhelming numbers the leadership of that gallant, modest, sincere, lovable governor of a great Prairie State, the standard bearer of the great Republican party for President of the United States, Alfred M. Landon."

In his *Philosophy of Rhetoric* Campbell distinguishes four kinds of nonsense: the puerile, the learned, the profound, the marvellous. In his Allentown, Pennsylvania, speech where Knox charged: "No life insurance policy is secure, no savings account is safe—" there is exemplification of all four kinds.

The effectiveness of campaign speeches must be judged by a single, severe test—the ability to gain votes. In the light of the results of November 3, 1936, the wisdom of Calvin Coolidge's policy of mysterious silence gains ground. The Republican high command might better have let the candidates make no speeches at all. At least Maine and Vermont could not be lost and New Hampshire and Kansas might have been won. Many citizens would have voted for no-speech candidates out of sheer gratitude.

H. F. HARDING, *George Washington University*

NEW BOOKS

The Relation of the Alabama-Georgia Dialect to the Provincial Dialects of Great Britain. By CLEANTH BROOKS. Baton Rouge: Louisiana State University Press, 1935; pp. xii + 91.

The influence of dialectal differences in British speech on American speech was recognized by Krapp in his *English Language in America,* as well as by other students of linguistic history. Professor Brooks has taken a comparatively small section of America, namely, Alabama and Georgia, and has traced many of the peculiarities of the speech found in this area back to their origins in England.

The study does not pretend to be based on a phonetic analysis of these influences primarily. The data are taken from the orthographic representations of the dialects concerned, reasoning from these to the phonetic values indicated. However, the reasoning has been sound, and is based upon ample authority. The absence of direct observation, on the other hand, makes final conclusions precarious in many instances. This danger Professor Brooks has carefully avoided in those cases where there is doubt as to the finality of his interpretations.

Even without the benefit of field-work and personal recording of the linguistic phenomena being studied, the study is a distinct contribution to our knowledge of the influences of English dialect on American, and should be carefully read by every student of our linguistic history.

G. W. GRAY, *Louisiana State University*

A Handbook of Voice Improvement. By F. LINCOLN D. HOLMES. Madison: College Typing Co., 1935; pp. 82.

Teachers of voice improvement and especially workers in speech clinics will find in this volume a collection of helpful exercises and suggestions for controlling the breath and for acquiring articulatory agility. In addition they will encounter some interesting discussion, largely speculative, on the problems of "voice placement," "general relaxation," "normal pitch level," "orotund quality," and "pectoral quality." But they will miss any reference to the significance of

phrasing, time patterns, or designs of stress in making spoken language intelligible and effectual.

Three fundamental factors operate in the efficient production of voice, according to Dr. Holmes' analysis—(1) optimum tension on the laryngeal valve, (2) use of "normal" pitch level, and (3) active control of pressure on the breath stream. However, "since we use in voice production a muscular mechanism designed for use during physical struggle, learning to inhibit struggle behavior while the valve in the larynx is being used for voice production is the major problem in voice improvement." Working from this hypothesis, he suggests exercises for building up "support of tone" and clear, forceful vocalization. Problems of "voice quality" arise from use of "a-normal pitch levels," which account for such characteristics as "nasality," "gutteral quality," "falsetto voice," and "pectoral quality." "Orotund" and "aspirate" qualities derive their chief characteristics from factors other than "a-normal" pitch. Such simplification of the affective, acoustic and physiological aspects of the concept of "voice quality" can be expected to give few clues for remedial training, consequently therapeutic techniques for these difficulties are largely confined to good advice about visualizing the qualities to be acquired in selections which will inspire the learner to recreate the moods to which such speech is appropriate. An appendix contains selections which have been found helpful in improving the use of the voice.

E. D. McDowell, *Columbia University*

Adventures of a Russian Puppet Theater. By Nina Efimova. Translated by Elena Mitcoff. Birmingham, Michigan: Puppetry Imprints, 1935; pp. 199. $2.50.

Teachers and students of puppetry will welcome this stimulating account of the hardships and success of Efimova while making a livelihood with puppets during and after the Russian Revolution. The book is divided into four parts: Puppets of the Revolution, Puppet Craft, Soviet Puppets, and Photographs. While some of the puppets described may be classed as crude according to some standards, they are, nevertheless, ingenious and effective.

For those interested in reading only for entertainment's sake, this book should be most satisfying. On the other hand, those individuals interested in studying the techniques used by these pioneers in their revival of an ancient art will revel in its suggestions. The explanations and descriptions are so thorough that even the uninitiated should

have no difficulty in the construction and operation of hand puppets. Scattered throughout the book are amusing and spirited drawings which enliven the text and display the clever antics of the puppets.

As Efimova concludes her book, "It is not enough to read about our puppets—you should see them;" so it could be said, "It is not enough to read *about* this book—*one should read it!*"

JEAN STARR WIKSELL and WESLEY WIKSELL, *Stephens College*

Intercollegiate Debates, Vol. xvii. Edited by EGBERT RAY NICHOLS. New York: Noble & Noble, 1936; pp. 450. $2.50.

To serve as a record of the current debate season, the editor presents the speeches and bibliographies from ten college debates, and a list of the results of most of the debate tournaments of the year. The length and scope of this list is a striking testimony of the rapid development of this procedure.

The editor is handicapped in his selection of debate subjects because of the growing habit of many institutions to use those few topics which achieve national selection each season. His selection of government ownership of electric utilities, limiting judicial review, cotton control program, repeal of the Iowa general sales tax, government spending to combat depression, United States support for League sanctions, Japanese policy in Asia, nationalism of arms and munitions, government ownership of all means of production, and compulsory officers training corps were probably the best choices possible. The selection of institutions has been more successful in former volumes. Only one eastern and two Pacific colleges are included.

It is significant that there are only two decisions by judges, and one by the audience. The speeches this year show more flexibility and adaptation than usual. In one debate the speeches are recorded as they are completed, assembled and presented over the radio without the appearance of the speakers. In another, the speakers do not appear either, but the result of a correspondence between them is read into the microphone as a series of speeches. Since another presentation is a synthetic affair to show the possibilities for debate in the national high school subject of the coming season, and three of the discussions were not debates at all, in that the teams did not really debate each other. This, and in other instances, the editing, may account for the apparent superiority of the debates in clash and rebuttal.

The decision of the editor to omit the briefs which sometimes go with the debates, but not his defense of the act, is concurred in by the reviewer.

BROOKS QUIMBY, *Bates College*

The Year Book of College Oratory, Vol. VIII. Compiled by EVAN E. ANDERSON. New York: Noble & Noble, 1936; pp. 304. $2.00.

College Youth Speaks! Critically? "The right of free speech has been flouted," complains the youth from New Jersey; "America is steeped in selfishness" is the cry from Minnesota; a lad from Iowa shudders at "a status of economic slavery;" and California merely expresses a general opinion in stating, "Youth confronts a system that harbors the selfish interests of every man, and idolizes human greed." Despairingly? The student from Missouri sees "a world into which we of the present generation have entered—a world slowly clattering into chaos;" and the undergraduate from Wisconsin is the spokesman for all when he notes "the utter hopelessness that greets our youth on graduation." Impatiently? "Archaic institutions must give way to social expediency" is the verdict from New York. "We need a change" are the words from Wisconsin, but they are only the refrain of the national chorus.

Constructively? Scarcely, yet a girl from Kentucky is willing to ask, "Why this deplorable condition?" a Kansan begs us to "analyze the situation in an effort to discover a remedy;" and a New Yorker admits, "It is our turn now." But definite proposals are few. Of the suggestions to curb the Supreme Court, limit individual wealth, adopt social insurance, perfect a parole system, and develop a sense of humor, the last seems most helpful.

As a collection of winning orations, suitable for the study of college thought and oral expression, this is an excellent book. As a Year Book of College Oratory, it does not do full justice to the experience of the editor. There is no real account of the status of intercollegiate oratory, and the selections are not representative enough. Most of the big contests are represented, yet the contests of the Intercollegiate Peace Association, reported as organized in twenty-three states, are not included. Some state contests are omitted and several local affairs substituted. For example, Maine and Vermont had not voted themselves out of the Union when this collection was made, yet the state contest from one of these states, an annual event, is not considered.

It may be true that the Mid-West has more state oratorical organizations and more successful contestants in interstate competition, yet this does not justify the fact that seventeen of the twenty-nine speakers come from this section of the country. There could be a better selection from other sections. Out of six orations from the East, three were chosen from local contests at Yale University. And

one of these is a moving plea for at least one little course in Public Speaking at this wealthy and comprehensive institution! Even the editor must have seen the incongruity of this situation, for he tactfully omitted the third of these orations from the table of contents. Let us hope that future editions of this worth-while annual may be properly titled *The American College Youth Speaks* and not *The Mid-Western Youth Speaks.*

BROOKS QUIMBY, *Bates College*

Unicameral Legislatures. Compiled by HARRISON BOYD SUMMERS. New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1936; pp. 245. $0.90.

Winning Debates, Orations and Speeches. Compiled and edited by GEORGE W. FINLEY. New York: Noble and Noble, Inc., 1936; pp. X + 241. $2.00.

Recent discussions centering upon the adoption of an amendment to the constitution of the state of Nebraska, providing for a one-chamber legislature, has led to the publication of *Unicameral Legislatures,* Number 1 of Volume XI of the regular Wilson Series. The book contains a brief (although this term has given way to the preferable "summary of arguments" in some of the Wilson volumes), a bibliography of approximately 250 items, and 72 short reprinted articles grouped under eleven headings such as Legislative Responsibility, Reform of the Legislature, and Bicameralism vs. Unicameralism. The editor carefully documents the references carried in the articles, and by notes brings old articles up to date. The addition to the book of a section called Authorities Quoted is a valuable and happy innovation deserving expansion and inclusion in all such books.

The volume of collected speeches contains the "debates, orations and extempore speeches . . . that won first, second and third place in the national contests of the Eleventh Biennial Convention of Pi Kappa Delta held at Houston, Texas, on March 30 to April 3, 1936." The final debate of both the men's tournament and of the women's tournament on limiting the power of the Supreme Court is reprinted from stenographic reports and offers opportunity for careful study, analysis, and post-mortems. The six orations—given by three men and three women—are unusually good. The subjects range from modern youth in class stratification to obstetrics; and one has the pleasant feeling after reading them that they justly deserve their high ranking, and that they are properly rated in relation to each other. This is quite true, also, of the seven extempore speeches. Teachers who are looking for examples, students who are interested

in speaking, and all those who want case studies in the depth of the undergraduate's imagination, the grasp of his scholarship, and the extent of his skill, should have this book, not on their shelves, but open on their desks.

FREDERICK W. HABERMAN, *Cornell University*

The Magic of Speech. By VIDA RAVENSCROFT SUTTON. New York: Pitman Publishing Corp., 1936; pp. v + 186. $1.50.

Miss Sutton is the director of the "Magic of Speech" radio programs and Chairman of the Radio Council for American Speech, an organization which aims to form good speech habits for the millions of radio listeners. Her point of view, both on the air and in this book, is sane; she believes that good speech is not an abstract skill, but a vital force in one's makeup, a force made possible only by the complete co-operation of all parts of the body. Though not for college use, this text is suitable for use in high schools and adult-education groups.

Of the three sections of the book, Problems of Speech, Short Plays for Class Reading, and Supplementary Chapters for Detailed Study of Sounds, the first is by far the most important. More than ninety pages are devoted to such topics as posture; personality in speech; body, voice, and tongue control; rhythm and intonation; and pronunciation. The short plays include a portion of *Everyman*. The final chapter carefully analyzes vowels and consonants.

Though the author mentions phonetics and even gives some of the symbols, the book lacks a phonetic table, which will be missed by those who attempt the exercises. There are also a few inadvertent repetitions of ideas. On the other hand, the book has two diagrams, many illustrative sentences, passages for reading aloud, word lists, and a host of exercises. Much of the material is presented in question-and-answer form, and the whole is infused with a sprightliness that makes the book interesting and worth while.

THEODORE G. EHRSAM, *Nassau College, New York University*

Public Opinion and Politics in Eighteenth Century England to the Fall of Walpole. By WILLIAM THOMAS LAPRADE. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1936; pp. 463.

Here are re-told the events of 1700–1742 with emphasis divided between the calculations of ministers and other leaders and the at-

tempts of the pamphleteers to influence opinion. Social conditions are taken for granted, rather than described. The method of the book is that of day-to-day recital of events; and this perhaps explains the confusing effect of the whole. The final impression is that of a diary or a scrapbook; now a ministerial resignation or the birth of a royal infant; now an argument by Swift or Defoe; now a Cabinet intrigue or the disclosure of it in the developing press. Kaleidoscopic juxtapositions such as these are the chief means of representing the connection between political action and public opinion. They are not enough; the author handles his materials skilfully, but by his choice of method has sentenced himself to ineffectiveness.

H. A. WICHELNS, *Cornell University*

What a Word! By A. P. HERBERT. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1936; pp. 286. $2.50.

The exclamatory, half-petulant, half-ferocious title is an excellent key to this lively book by Oxford's Member of Parliament. With a pleasing mingling of the mock-magisterial and the quizzical, Mr. Herbert hales before the bar of taste and judgment various of those linguistic monstrosities which most annoy him. Flabby, wordy, pretentious writing and speaking he berates as "Jungle English;" his prime examples naturally come from journalistic writing, "officialese," and political speeches. Sometimes he seems to be pummeling a man of straw, as when he lays low such probable nonce-words as "oratorize" and "youthify." More often his hits are palpable and clear—"ideology," a snob word; "center *around*," inanely illogical; "while," blundering and confusing when divorced from its temporal associations; "intriguing" in its dead-head sense of "interesting," "angle" in its myriad of muddy non-meanings (*e.g.*, "a new angle on religion"). In these and many other instances Mr. Herbert strikes good, slashing blows for honest, exact, muscular English. This is, very definitely, a book which one should know if he likes his English to be, like Horace's Pyrrha, "plain in its neatness;" and from it he will quote liberally to students and friends.

It is just to say, however, that Mr. Herbert, who delights to point with kindly superiority to the blunders of us "North Americans," incidentally lays bare unsuspected deformities in contemporary British speech. We have out faults, but among them are not, I believe, "de-dirting process," "deratization" (to free of rats), "lovelify," and "redecontamination." Our English may be sleazy,

dull, and inaccurate; but to the best of my knowledge, it rarely rises to such heights of triumphant infamy.

JOHN B. EMPEROR, *University of Tennessee*

Should the Government Own and Operate Electric Utilities? Compiled and edited by E. C. BUEHLER. New York: Noble and Noble, Inc., 1936; pp. v + 350. $2.00.

The Crisis in the Electric Utilities. By J. V. GARLAND and CHARLES F. PHILLIPS. New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1936; pp. 216. $0.90.

Should the Government Own and Operate Electric Utilities? (Debater's Help Book, Volume III), is uniform with the other books of this series. The contents are divided into three parts. The last part is a selective bibliography of some 300 items, including books, pamphlets, and periodicals. The editor has made this bibliography, which thoroughly covers the field, especially meritorious by adding short critical comments on the value and scope of each item. The middle part of the book is a compilation of twenty-two well-selected reprints, all from current periodicals, though the heading to this section suggests they come from books as well. The first part of the book contains the usual brief, and in addition, three chapters dealing with an analysis of the question, questions and answers pertaining to interpretation, and definition of terms essential to a grasp of the proposition. These three chapters will be welcomed by debate directors, for they will be of aid in orienting the debater by giving him a rounded, though by no means complete, introduction to the controversy, and of aid in inspiring "confidence and enthusiasm for diligent research" by suggesting various lines of development in the argumentative approach.

The Crisis in the Electric Utilities (Reference Shelf, Vol. X, No. 10) supplements Julia Johnsen's *Government Ownership of Electric Utilities.* It is, however, built on a different plan, being a thoroughly integrated and comprehensive treatment of the problem, progressing from introductory factual material to a marshalling of the arguments for and against government ownership. The nine chapters take up the evidence and prelude to the crisis; local, state, and federal regulation of utilities; foreign experience with utilities; government ownership, with the case for and against, and with alternative proposals. The authors have outlined the major phases of the problem, have subdivided these into the minor phases, and under each heading have

included enough factual material and illustrations of abstract principles that the thought may be readily and fully grasped. I particularly looked for and found an admirable exposition of the "no-man's land" of electric utility legislation—that is, that place where the state commission's power leaves off, and where regulation is still needed. The Public Utility Act of 1935 is reviewed and its main features discussed in connection with this "no-man's land." The economic principles of the book are sound, the scrupulous care that has gone into its arrangement makes it clear, orderly, and easily adapted to a debating situation. Of the books on electric utilities that have come to my attention, this one is the best from the viewpoint of conception, execution, and possible effect upon the maturity of a student's thinking.

FREDERICK W. HABERMAN, *Cornell University*

Speech Correction Manual. By JAMES F. BENDER and VICTOR M. KLEINFELD. New York: Farrar & Rinehart, Inc., 1936; pp. xiv + 266.

This book, tested at the College of the City of New York on over two thousand students with defective speech, is offered for use: "(1) by those who are interested in improving their articulation generally; (2) by the teacher who has had no great amount of experience in teaching speech correction; (3) by the high school and college speech student working alone or with little supervision; (4) by the physician who has need of a handbook of drills and ready references."

The organization of the material suits the purpose of the book exactly. Useful exercises fill most of the pages, and the parts devoted to explanations of the exercises, defects, and theory, although held to a minimum, are written in detailed but readable style, and from a sensible point of view. For the vowel [ə] the authors use the term *vocule*, a word which already has an established meaning. It refers to the sound immediately following the explosive phase of a plosive; it is predominant in the final position, and a starting point for the succeeding phonetic element in some other positions. Since there are already several terms for the *indefinite, schwa, fundamental, root* [ə], it is not desirable to confuse an established meaning.

Though the publishers have used rather feeble material in a book planned for hard and rough use as a drill manual, the authors have worked out the material with great care, and have made it very usable. I shall heartily recommend it to Dartmouth students.

CHARLES H. VOELKER, *Dartmouth College*

The Rôle of Intonation in Spoken English. By MARIA SCHUBIGER. Boston: Expression Co., 1936; pp. vi + 74. $1.25.

This little paper-covered book was apparently first published in England, though there is no reference to that fact in the American edition. Covering much the same ground as the familiar treatises on British intonation of Colemen, Jones, Palmer, Armstrong and Ward, it seems to be designed for continental European readers, and there is some attempt to integrate the subject with the linguistic thought of the continent, notably with that of the School of de Saussure. There is, however, no reference to Klinghardt, and no mention of American intonation. C.K.T.

Class Lessons in Improving Speech. By EDNA COTREL and ELIZABETH M. HALSTED. Boston: Expression Co., 1936; pp. 101. $.85.

Designed for use in the elementary schools, this book presents classroom methods for the treatment of minor consonantal difficulties; there is no attempt to discuss vowels and diphthongs. At the end of the book there are five pages on foreign substitutions, three on stammering, and two on baby talk. The authors have made a start, but the book scarcely seems completed. C.K.T.

Stage Scenery and Lighting. By SAMUEL SELDEN and HUNTON D. SELLMAN. New York: F. S. Crofts & Co., 1936; pp. xvii + 435.

After five printings, this excellent manual has been revised and bound in blue instead of red. A number of line drawings have been added and some changes have been made in the half-tone reproductions of stage settings. Part I—Scenery now includes a chapter on cut-down or "Minimum Scenery." In Part II—Stage Lighting, the chapter on The Elementary Physics of Light has been omitted and five of the remaining seven chapters rewritten. Aided by Dr. E. P. T. Tyndall, the authors have written a much-improved chapter on "Color;" A glossary of about 180 stage and lighting terms has been placed at the end of the book. Painful, no doubt, to the authors are the several unfortunate mechanical errors that have crept into this revised edition. Of more serious consequence to the user, however, is the unrevised index for Part II.

WALTER H. STAINTON, *Cornell University*

IN THE PERIODICALS

SCHLAUCH, MARGARET: "The Social Basis of Linguistics." *Science and Society,* I, No. 1, Fall, 1936, 18–44.

"In short, it is not a matter of indifference to know, in approaching the work of a given linguist, what his philosophy of society may be, and whether his thinking is turned to fascism, liberal democracy, or communism."

Starting with Aristotle's premise about man's being a social animal, and further predicating the essentially social nature of the act of communication, the article traces the connection between the work of specialists on the general problem of language and "their theories and attitudes—consciously or unconsciously held—concerning the nature of society."

Miss Schlauch has collated examples of ultra-nationalism "expressing itself with dogmatic certainty in linguistic terms" (Fichte, Vassler). Along with these are presented examples of linguists whose essential faith is one in democracy (Meillet, Vassler); others whose writings are colored by strong mystical and religious leanings, (Schmidt, H. F. Muller), as well as those who lean rather more heavily in the direction of evolution (Haeckel, Schleicher, Friedrich Muller).

The various theories of the Origin of Language are analyzed, accompanied by the basic social attitudes of their sponsors, to elucidate the sources of the individual bias. Schmidt's sociological theories of language are discussed in the light of this juxtaposition, as are the theories of Noire, Cassirer, and Humboldt.

This is a valuable initial contribution to a field which gives promise of giving forth much interesting material with further investigation.

ABRAHAM TAUBER, *Seward Park High School, New York*

HILL, HARRY SEGNER: "The Effect of Bilingualism on the Measured Intelligence of Elementary School Children of Italian Parentage." *Journal of Experimental Education,* V, No. 1, September, 1936, 75–78.

"The primary purpose of the investigation was to weigh the effect

of bilingualism on the scores of a variety of recognized tests of intelligence by comparing Italian children who heard and spoke Italian at home with Italian children who heard and spoke English at home." The conclusions indicate that the effect "may be disregarded."

KROUT, MAURICE H.: "Emotional Factors in the Etiology of Stammering." *The Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, XXXI, No. 2, July-September, 1936, 174–181.

Following the presentation of some case analyses, the author concludes that "certain deep-seated emotional conflicts have an etiological bearing on stammering." Furthermore, "because these conflicts persist, and the individual continues to be unable to solve them, stammering must be regarded as a major type of neurosis." L.T.

HEIM, A.: "An Experiment on Humour." *The British Journal of Psychology*, XXXVII, Part 2, October, 1936, 148–161.

This study was designed (1) "to discover if certain rules or tendencies operate when people laugh, and what they are" and (2) "to test the assumptions . . . that there is at least one common element in all things called humour, and that there is one experience common to all laughter situations."

The experimenter studied the reactions of 50 subjects to a set of 32 jokes. An attempt was made to determine uniformity of judgments, disagreements, time lags in making response, differences between pictorial and written jokes, variations in response growing out of differences in nationality and sex, and ability to recall the jokes sometime later.

"The main result of the experiment is to make one exceedingly chary of setting up any rules on the subject of humour, and to allay the great temptation of classifying types of humour and senses of humour." L.T.

HIBBITT, GEORGE W.: "Hearing Ourselves as Others Hear Us." Part II and III. *Columbia University Quarterly*, XXVIII, No. 2, June, 1936, 125–130.

"Speech becomes our present mode of life, our modern tempo. It not only becomes it; in good part, speech makes it." If the college graduate is to become a working force in the community, the college must assist him "to know speech and how to use it properly" for the new and enlarging activities in which he will engage.

In Part III of the same contribution the author reports upon the

building of a library of speech by making records of poets, essayists, novelists, lecturers, and actors, as well as of dialects, folklore, folk songs, and folk customs. Recently, representative speakers over the radio have been recorded, "so that in years to come we shall be able to study not only what was the characteristic speech of the twenties and thirties, but also to see what, if any, changes there might have been in the rhetoric from the days of Aristotle." Records published include recordings of Vachel Lindsay, issued by the Columbia University Press, and of Gertrude Stein and Robert Frost, published by the Erpi Picture Consultants, Inc. The other records may be heard at the Phonetics Laboratory of Columbia University.

SUTTON, VIDA R.: "The Script of the Speaking-Press." *Education*, 57, No. 1, September, 1936, 21–26.

A radio manuscript is "'a script prepared to be spoken.'" It requires a somewhat special type of preparation because of three important factors, namely, the time element, the aural appeal element, and the audience element.

A bibliography of works on radio speaking is appended to the article. L.T.

SPENDIAROFF, EUGENE: "Basic English, or Modern Language Methodology from an Easy Chair." *The High School Journal*, XIX, No. 5, May, 1936, 151–153, 172.

The theme of this article is derived from *Love's Labour's Lost:* "They have been at a great feast of languages and stolen the scraps."

The system of Basic English is roundly criticized because it lacks careful treatment of phonetic problems. Furthermore, the "functional knowledge of 'Basic' is as difficult of attainment for a foreigner as that of standard English." And lastly, the principles of the scheme have no value "as means of mastering standard literary English . . ." L.T.

CROCKER, LIONEL: "Drill Exercises in Public Speaking." *The English Journal* (College Edition), XXV, No. 9, November, 1936, 765–769.

Professor Crocker presents a number of sheets giving concise data, examination forms, and text titles for beginning classes in Public Speaking.

BRYAN, WILLIAM LOWE: "The Oral Interpretation of Literature." *The Harvard Teachers' Record,* 6, No. 3, June, 1936, 145–147.

President Bryan stresses the need for more work in the reading of poetry. "The teacher and the young people have tasks of immense difficulty and of absorbing interest in finding the way to the interpretation of these works of art which unite the greatest thought with the most profound emotion." L.T.

WELLS, EARL W.: "The Speech Defective." *Hawaii Educational Review,* XXV, No. 1, September, 1936, 7.

"The speech defective is one who vocalizes, articulates, or pronounces in a manner so definitely subnormal . . . that his speech attracts undue attention."

A thorough speech correction program would the more swiftly be realized if: (1) there were a fuller recognition of the need by more educators; (2) state legislative action would give speech defectives a status comparable to that of other handicapped members; (3) more funds were available for corrective work; (4) speech correction curricula were better developed; and (5) more work in training speech correctionists were carried out. L.T.

KAVANAGH, DENIS J.: "Saint Augustine and Education." *The Catholic Educational Review,* XXXIV, No. 6, June, 1936, 321–335.

FALLON, PERLIE P.: "Marcus Tullius Cicero." *Columbia University Quarterly,* XXVIII, No. 2, June, 1936, 131–143.

St. Augustine's "homilies, characterized by sublimity and exactitude, vivid imagination and vast erudition, clear exposition and forceful appeal, have, without interruption, afforded models and material for sacred orators in every succeeding age . . ." This article is of passing interest because of the occasional references to Augustine's place in medieval rhetoric.

Although the second article emphasizes Cicero's letters, rather than his orations, it is yet of value to students of classical rhetoric. L.T.

"The College and the Theater in Alliance." *Bulletin of the Association of American Colleges,* XXII, No. 3, November, 1936, 428–455.

This is a survey of what is being done in dramatics at some of the middle western and eastern institutions. Among others, there are

papers on the Mohawk Drama Festival at Union College, the Carolina Playmakers at North Carolina, the Theater Workshop at the College of the City of New York, and the Civic Theater at Denver.

There appears also an abstract of certain data concerning theater arts in American institutions derived from the doctoral dissertation of Richard Ceough of the College of the City of New York.

L.T.

RASHKOPF, HORACE G.: "Speech Education and English." *The University of Washington College of Education Record,* II, No. 6, March, 1936, 89–90.

This is a brief examination of *An Experience Curriculum* which was prepared by the National Council of Teachers of English. Dr. Rahskopf criticizes the section on Speech because (1) it "does not present a well-rounded concept of speech as a basic activity of civilized human life, and hence as a central part of school curricula," and (2) "the program of teacher training in speech needs further development."

L.T.

LIVINGOOD, FRED G.: "Directed Extra-Curricular Activities and Adjustment." *Mental Hygiene,* XX, No. 4, October, 1936, 614–623.

Those students who, because of their versatility and competence, assume most of the leadership rôles in school need direction in order to avoid an improper balance of duties. The middle group, which is composed of about 75% of the students as over against the 10% in the upper group, needs to be directed away from the paths of least resistance. Outside activities will serve to release much potential power. The lower 15% constitutes the group in which direction is most likely "to yield the greatest values to individuals in the way of helping them to attain social and mental adjustment."

WEST, ROBERT: "Is Stuttering Abnormal?" *The Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology,* XXXI, No. 1, April-June, 1936, 76–86.

This is a discussion of the point of view regarding stuttering which holds that the stutterer, so far as speech equipment is concerned, is "fundamentally different from the non-stutterer." Dr. West examines the psychoneurotic, pathologic, and genetic theories of causation, and comments briefly on therapy and prognosis.

L.T.

McFARLAND, GEORGE A.: "The McGuffey Centenary. *The North Dakota Teacher,* XVI, No. 2, October, 1936, 17–18, 30.

The phrase "as innocuous as McGuffey's third reader" comes in for lively criticism. The author comments on the centennial celebration held last July at Miami University, Oxford, Ohio, and discusses the influence that McGuffey exercised during the nineteenth century.

L.T.

MENEFEE, SELDEN C.: "The Effect of Stereotyped Words on Political Judgments." *American Sociological Review,* I, No. 4, August, 1936, 614–621.

"This was a study of verbal behavior; more specifically, a study of how our judgments on political questions may be altered by the addition of stereotyped words or labels that have, popularly, a somewhat emotional tone." Professor Menefee used statements corresponding to certain stereotypes, such as Fascism, Conservatism, and Socialism, to mention but a few. The subjects were first given the sentences without the attached labels; later, with the attached stereotypes. The results showed that the use of words had a more or less consistent effect in determining responses. This article is of genuine interest to all students of public opinion.

L.T.

NEWS AND NOTES

(Please send items intended for this department directly to Miss Lousene Rousseau, 49 East 33d Street, New York City.)

Announcement has just been made that Brooklyn College is now offering graduate courses in speech, for which the degree of Master of Arts will be awarded. Members of the staff offering graduate work include J. M. O'Neill, chairman of the Department of Speech, Thomas E. Coulton, Lou Kennedy, Almira Menninger Giles, Kathryn Mulholland, Dr. Leo A. Kallen, Marvin G. Bauer, and Barnard Hewitt.

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The Ohio State University has announced that by action of the Board of Trustees, June 15, 1936, a Department of Speech has been established in the College of Arts and Sciences. The new Department includes all of the instruction and services formerly offered by the Division of Phonetics and by Public Speaking and Dramatics in the Department of English. The staff includes V. A. Ketcham, Chairman, G. O. Russell, E. W. Riley, H. A. Miller, M. K. Mason, James Carrell, Bert Emsley, Miss Jones, and Mr. Cotton. This action was recommended by the Ohio Association of College Teachers of Speech.

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At the suggestion of the Ohio Association of College Teachers of Speech, there has been organized the Ohio Association of Secondary School Teachers of Speech, with Central, Southwestern, and Eastern branches. Each of these district organizations held its first meetings after the English programs of the Ohio Sectional Teachers Associations. Plans have been made to organize the Northeastern district at the time of the third annual debate clinic at Wooster. E. Turner Stump, of Kent State University, is chairman of the Committee on Curriculum for Secondary Schools, and W. R. Diem, of Ohio Wesleyan University, is chairman of the committee on credits for speech work in schools. Presidents of the district organizations are the following: John Martin, Oakwood High School, Dayton, Central district; Miss Erna Kruckemeyer, Hughes High School, Cincinnati, Southwestern district; Victor K. Miller, Martin's Ferry High School, Eastern district; and E. J. Diller, Chaney High School, Youngstown, Northeastern district.

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On November 13 a joint meeting of the Speech Department of the Missouri State Teachers Association and the Missouri Association of Teachers of Speech was held at the Kansas City Junior College. Wilbur E. Gilman is chairman of the Speech Department and president of the Missouri Association of Teachers of Speech. The following-named papers were presented:

The Course of Study of 1928, Virginia Robertson, Central High School, Kansas City.

Present Conditions of the Teaching of Speech in Missouri, M. Agnes Rank, Jefferson City Junior College.

Integrating Speech and English, George C. Gates, University Laboratory Schools.

Will Integration Overtax the Teaching Schedule? Cecile Burton, East High School, Kansas City.

The Course of Study of 1937, Loren D. Reid, University of Missouri.

Round Table Discussion on *Problems in the Teaching of Speech:* E. C. Fossum, Westport High School, Kansas City, presiding over the elementary school section; Marjorie Patterson, Westport Junior High School, presiding over the junior high school section; C. C. Fairchild, Manual Training High School, Kansas City, presiding over the senior high school section (the last-named division later breaking up into discussion groups concerned with public speaking, debate, oral interpretation, dramatics, and corrective speech); J. P. Kelly, State Teachers College, Maryville, presiding over the college and university section.

The State Department of Education in Missouri is revising courses of study in English and Speech, and has entrusted the drafting of the new course of study in Speech to the Missouri Association of Teachers of Speech. Loren D. Reid, of the University of Missouri, is chairman of the curriculum committee.

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W. Norwood Brigance, of Wabash College, who is spending the year on leave of absence as acting chairman of the combined Departments of English and Speech at the University of Hawaii, writes that the emphasis upon speech work is unusual in that institution, largely because of the large oriental student body. Students whose speech is for any reason thought to be unsatisfactory must appear before an examining board. Those who fail are denied permission to graduate, while those who are conditioned must improve the quality of their speech or be dropped from the University. As a result of this requirement, the University has fourteen sections of a class in speech correction, in addition to six sections of classes in voice and diction. Dr. Brigance is also scheduled to make visits by airplane to the six islands in the Hawaiian group to study the speech training given in the public schools.

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The Division of Speech of the Pennsylvania State College is stressing speech correction work in the Extension Services of the College. Herbert Koepp-Baker is in charge of the work, which includes three types of services: public lectures presenting the problems of defective speech; public clinics in which persons outside the public schools are examined for speech defects, have their difficulties diagnosed, and treatment recommended; and a more comprehensive service available to the public school system of the state, which calls for a speech examination of the school population accompanied by a recommendation of methods for a speech re-education program.

* * * *

Speech institutes have now become a recognized part of the speech activities of the state of Wisconsin. Each one presents a program of special interest to high school students and coaches, including classes and demonstrations in Debate, Dramatics, Extemporaneous Speaking, Reading, Declamation, and Oratory. Three such institutes have been held during the fall, at Shawano, Antigo,

and Madison. A feature of the one in Madison was a debate between Ohio University and the University of Wisconsin on the proposition: Resolved: That all electric utilities should be governmentally owned and operated.

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The Tennessee Association of Teachers of Speech has just published the first number of a very ambitious speech journal, The Tennessee Speech Journal. Officers of the Association are Orville C. Miller, Vanderbilt University, President; John B. Emperor, University of Tennessee, First Vice-President; Rebekah M. Cohen, Central High School, Memphis, Second Vice-President; and Jennie Mai McQuiddy, Nashville, Secretary-Treasurer. Editors of the new Journal include Ruby Cloys Krider, Grove High School, Paris; Christine Higginbotham, Peabody College for Teachers; and Dorothy Munns Miller, Nashville. The next convention of the Tennessee Association of Teachers of Speech will be held at Nashville, March 25-27.

* * * *

At Washington University the graduate faculty has authorized the granting of the M.A. degree in English with an emphasis in Speech. The undergraduate faculty offers the A.B. degree in English with an emphasis in Public Speaking, and the B.S. degree in Speech Correction and Pathology. Graduate courses will be available in the fields of rhetoric and public speaking, under the direction of Karl R. Wallace.

* * * *

Emerson College, formerly Emerson College of Oratory, has recently announced a new Bachelor of Arts curriculum, and will graduate its first class under the new arrangement this coming June. Students may now work toward either the A.B. degree or the professional B.L.I. degree. Enrollment figures at Emerson this year are fifteen percent above those of last year. Howard Higgins, formerly of Miami University, is the new Dean of the College. Margaret Schofield Rigby, formerly of the University of Pennsylvania, is the new head of the English Department, taking the place of James C. Rockel, who has gone to Connecticut State College. Rowland Gray-Smith, of the University of Pennsylvania, heads the newly established Department of Philosophy, and Dorothy Hall Parkhurst, of New York University, the new Department of Modern Languages.

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Miss Marjorie Gullan has announced the annual Summer School in Speech, July 12th to 23d, of the Speech Fellowship and Institute, in London. Lecturers at the Summer School will include, in addition to Miss Gullan, Kathleen Ortmans, Kathleen Stone, Barbara Storey, and Jane Dorsey Zimmerman, of Teachers College, Columbia University, who will offer work in phonetics for American students. Shortly before the opening of the Institute, Miss Eileen MacLeod, Chairman of the British Society of Speech Therapists, will conduct a seminar course for speech therapists, which will include visits to various hospital and school clinics. Particulars of this course may be secured from Miss MacLeod, 55a Welbeck Street, London, W. 1. Additional features of interest to American teachers of speech will be an evening recital of the London Verse Speaking Choir, the Oxford Festival of Poetry July 27-30, and the Shakespeare Festival at Stratford-on-Avon, which will continue until September 25.

For the tenth successive year the Drama League has arranged an English Study Tour, which will extend from June 28 to August 30, under the general direction of Dean Pearl Aikin-Smith, of the University of Southern California. Supplementary groups will be conducted by Vida R. Sutton, of N.B.C., and Frances K. Gooch, of Agnes Scott College. The Canadian group will be conducted by Mrs. Barbara West, of Vancouver, B. C. The first six weeks will be spent at the Summer Session of the Central School of Speech Training and Dramatic Art, of which Miss Elsie Fogerty is chairman. Following that, the group will spend a week at Oxford, taking part in the annual Verse-Speaking Contest, and then a week at Malvern, where Sir Barry Jackson's Malvern Festival will be held. The final weeks will be spent in the Shakespeare School in Stratford. Detailed information concerning the tour may be secured from the Drama League Travel Bureau, Hotel Woodstock, New York City.

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FORENSICS

The second Missouri High School Debaters' Assembly was held at the University of Missouri, December 4 and 5. Each member of the Missouri High School Debate League was invited to send four delegates to participate in the legislative proceedings of the assembly. The legislative program was supplemented by a practice debate tournament, and there was also a round-table discussion for coaches. Bower Aly, of the University of Missouri, was in charge of arrangements.

The Wabash College Speakers Bureau reports that during the past year it scheduled 136 speeches before high schools, farm bureaus, service clubs, churches, and civic associations. Its most popular address was "Behind the Scenes in Hollywood," by Will H. Hays, Jr. The present season is the tenth for the Wabash Speakers Bureau.

The third annual Debate Conference for schools in southern Iowa and northern Missouri was held at Bloomfield Junior College, Iowa, November 21, under the direction of Paul V. Bissel. Emphasis was placed on round-table discussions and a student assembly. Two demonstration debates were held, between teams representing the University of Iowa and the University of Missouri.

A unique radio broadcast has been instituted at the University of Michigan, where the class in Stage and Radio Diction, conducted by C. E. Densmore, meets in the campus studio every Wednesday afternoon from 2:15 to 2:45, and the classroom discussions, comments, questions and answers are broadcast over WJR (Detroit), without a written script or previous rehearsal.

The Chickasaw Debating Council, of Central High School, Memphis, has conducted a weekly half-hour radio debate over WMC for the past six years. This year the Speech Club of Technical High School will also have a weekly program of a varied nature.

An original experiment in speech-making has been worked out by Charles E. Weniger at Pacific Union College. The method might be called the *seriatim* method, since it involves the delivery of a speech in sections by a number of speakers. Using for his first project Conwell's well-known "Acres of Diamonds," he divided the speech into eleven sections, one part for each member of an advanced course in speech-making. The speech was studied as a whole, and each man memorized his section and the one immediately preceding (the

first speaker memorizing the conclusion as well as the first section), this plan providing alternates in case of the absence of any one speaker. The men worked up their own sections carefully, even to the extent of supplying fresh new illustrations in the manner of Conwell. The class then constituted a team, which made a number of appearances before different groups, including the college auditorium, the Kiwanis Club, church groups, P.T.A., C.C.C. groups, etc., as well as in several high schools. Usually the men appeared on the platform together, speaking in turn as though each were delivering an independent speech. The method has also been applied to the public telling of long narratives, and has proved an interesting experience, both for the class and for the various audiences.

Rockhurst College, Westminster College, Washington University, and the University of Missouri have recently debated with the University of Oxford. The question most often debated on the Oxford trip this year was: Resolved: That the American Constitution is a menace to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness.

The 1936–1937 Arizona State Debate Tournament was held at the State Teachers College at Tempe, November 13 and 14. Three tournaments were held: a varsity tournament open to junior and senior men and women, a junior college men's tournament, and a junior college women's tournament, open respectively to freshman and sophomore men and women. Sixteen teams were entered, representing the five institutions of higher learning in Arizona, and a total of thirty debates were held on the proposition, Resolved: That Congress should be empowered to fix minimum wages and maximum hours for industry.

High Schools in the Saint Louis area held their second annual non-decision debate tournament at Maplewood Senior High School November 21. About sixteen schools entered the tournament, which was arranged by Lloyd W. Welden, of Maplewood. The object of the event was to provide debate practice for the debaters, and the "judges" offered suggestions and criticisms both to teams and individuals instead of the customary decisions.

The second annual pre-season non-decision debate tournament of the Greenbrier Valley schools was held at Greenbrier High School, Ronceverte, West Virginia, November 2. The question used was Resolved: That all electric utilities should be governmentally owned and operated. Each team of each school was permitted to enter three debates.

The Reserve Rostrum of Western Reserve University is now engaged in its tenth season of public addresses, its fifteenth of forum debates, and its forty-first of intercollegiate debates. Howard S. Woodward, head of the Department of Speech, is in charge of the work of the Rostrum. The 1936–1937 program includes three subjects for debate: Resolved: That Congress should be empowered to fix minimum wages and maximum hours for industry; Resolved: That all electric utilities should be governmentally owned and operated; Resolved: That the United States should pursue a policy of economic internationalism. The subjects listed for speeches and informal discussions include American neutrality, the divorce orphan, the American Youth Movement, dancing for children, dancing in America, the Jew in Europe, the long ballot, labor, the socialization of medicine, the Cleveland Legal Aid Society, the Cleveland Hospitalization Service Association, and a book review of Bakus' *A Place in the Sun*.

A radio demonstration debate on the electric utility proposition was broadcast over the red network of NBC November 19, with Norman Thomas and Harry W. Laidler supporting the affirmative and G. W. Dyer and W. C. Mullendore the negative.

A tournament in debate, extempore speaking, and oratory was held in Pasadena, November 23–25, with teams and speakers from twenty-eight colleges of California, Oregon, Washington, Nevada, Colorado, Utah, and Arizona participating.

The annual tournament of the Missouri Valley Forensic League will be held at Washington University, March 18–20. The proposition for debate this year is Resolved: That the extension of consumer co-operatives will contribute to the public welfare. A legislative assembly will be substituted for one round of the debates.

DRAMATICS

Major dramatic productions by the senior class at Emerson College this year include Ben Jonson's *Volpone*, Aristophanes' *Frogs*, and a modern English drama. Major productions of the junior class were Covely's *The Princess and the Swineherd*, a melodrama of old songs called *Hearts and Flowers*, and *Leave It To Psmith*, by P. G. Wodehouse. The sophomore class schedule calls for the production of forty-seven one-acts.

Under the direction of E. C. Mabie, of the University of Iowa, will be held the Iowa Play Production Festival, at the State University, March 18–20 for community players and groups, and April 1–3 for high school and junior college players. Some of the sessions of the Festival will be held in the new Dramatic Arts Building which was dedicated November 7. Invitations have been extended to directors of dramatics in Iowa high schools, junior colleges, little theatres, church groups, women's clubs, community organizations, participants in county contests, authors of new plays, and individuals interested in the writing and production of one-act plays. All plays presented must be selected from the approved list issued by the University, and certification of payment of royalty must be in the hands of the committee well in advance.

At Pennsylvania State College, November 14, under the auspices of the Division of Dramatics, a dramatics institute was held, the object of which was "to furnish instruction in the various arts of producing entertainments." High school directors, leaders of community groups, grade school teachers, supervising principals, and leaders of women's clubs were invited to be present. In addition to a number of speakers on the choosing of plays for children and for high schools, scenery and costume for children's and for high school performances, and problems of directing, The Children's Theatre produced *Tom Sawyer*, a marionette program was given by the Kingsland Marionettes, and the Penn State Players produced *Personal Appearance*. Arthur C. Cloetingh was in charge of arrangements.

The Dramatic classes of the Speech Department of Pontiac High School, Michigan, staged the thirteenth one-act Play Festival December 9–11. The plays presented on the first two nights were *Singapore Spider*, by Edward Finnegan; *Paradise, Brothers*, by Walter Bissell; *Miss Nancy's Legacy*, by Dorothy Wilson; *An Unprepared Test*, by Dorothy C. Allan; *Sardines*, by Carolyn Draper Gilpatric; *Ultra*, by W. N. Viola; and *Hyacinths for Christmas*, by Louise Helliwell. From these productions a committee of judges selected four

for presentation the last evening of the festival. W. N. Viola is the dramatic director of Pontiac High School.

Recent productions of the Plays and Players of Los Angeles Junior College include Moliere's *The Doctor in Spite of Himself*, Gogol's *The Inspector-General*, Ibsen's *Ghosts*, Merton Hodge's *The Wind and the Rain*, and Shakespeare's *Comedy of Errors*. The Choral Speaking Choir also gave a recital.

Current productions at the University Theatre of Indiana University include *Accent on Youth*, by Raphaelson; *After Dark*, by Boucicault; *The Old Maid*, by Aikins; *Bury the Dead*, by Shaw; *The Wild Duck*, by Ibsen; and *The Crime at Blossoms*, by Shairp.

The Players Club of Swarthmore produced Barrie's *The Admirable Crichton*, under the direction of John Dolman, Jr., during the week from December 8 to 12. Other recent performances of this group include Molnar's *The Guardsman*, Shaw's *Fanny's First Play*, O'Neill's *Ah, Wilderness!* and a forthcoming production of Sierra's *The Cradle Song*.

Columbia University has recently announced the establishment of a theatrical laboratory center, representing the Columbia College Dramatic Group, the Columbia Laboratory Players, and the Morningside Players. It is hoped that a university theatre will be built on the campus in the near future. The organization will be known as the Columbia Theatre Associates, and its temporary headquarters will be Earl Hall. The first production sponsored by the new group was Europides' *Iphigenia in Tauris*.

The Players of William Jewell College opened the season with a production of *Another Language*, under the direction of Virginia Rice. *Alison's House* and *Hamlet* are to be produced later.

Gammer Gurton's Needle has been selected by the College Players of the State Teachers College of Kirksville, Missouri, for their annual road trip.

The Missouri Workshop, of the University of Missouri, opened the current season with a production of *Bury the Dead*. In December they presented the world premiere of *Wings of the Morning*, a new play by Charles Quimby Burdette. Other productions planned include *Noah* and *Candida*. Herbert V. Hake is in charge of the Workshop during the absence of Donovan Rhynsburger.

The Blackfriars, of the University of Alabama, have presented during the present season—their thirtieth—*The Night of January 16*, by Ayn Rand; *The Wind and the Rain*, by Merton Hodge; *Yellow Jack*, by Sidney Howard. These productions were in charge of Lester Raines, of New Mexico Normal University, who is on leave of absence this year. One of the most interesting plays to be produced at the University of Alabama was a revival of *East Lynne*, presented by The Key Club, Alabama's honorary dramatic society.

Three Cornered Moon, by Gertrude Tonkonogy, was presented early in December at the La Crosse, Wisconsin, State Teachers College. R. C. Bednar was the director.

The Knoxville High School troupe of National Thespians sponsored the first Knoxville Junior High School One-Act Contest December 12.

PERSONALS

Joseph F. Smith, of the University of Utah, is on leave of absence at the University of Wisconsin, where he is doing some teaching and completing the

work for his doctorate. He is on the staff of the Department of Speech at the University of Minnesota for the first summer session, and will spend the rest of the summer at the Banff School of Fine Arts in Canada.

F. M. Rarig, of the University of Minnesota, is spending a year's leave of absence in Europe, chiefly in England. Upon his return in June he will go directly to Northwestern University, where he will join the staff of the School of Speech for the summer session.

A. M. Harris, who has been on an extended leave of absence, due to ill health, has returned to his duties as head of the Department of Public Speaking at Vanderbilt University.

Lionel Crocker, of Denison University, is on leave of absence the second semester of this year, and will spend the time in England visiting relatives and working at the British Museum.

Mrs. Olive G. Burch, of Hunter College High School, spent last summer at the Central School of Speech Training in London, and the first semester of this year in study at the University of Southern California on sabbatical leave from Hunter College High School.

Miss Mary E. Cramer, chairman of the Speech Department of Hunter College High School, New York, has been granted sabbatical leave of absence the second semester of this year, and will spend it in California.

New members of the Department of Speech at Brooklyn are Marvin G. Bauer, who was formerly of Washington and Lee University and Oberlin College, and who was awarded his doctorate at the University of Wisconsin last summer; and Barnard Hewitt, formerly of Cornell University and the University of Montana.

Carl G. Brandt, of the University of Michigan, has been appointed by President Ruthven to the position of Director of the 1937 Centennial Celebration of the University of Michigan, June 14–19.

John W. Black is head of the recently created Department of Speech in Kenyon College. For eight years he has been professor of Speech in Adrian College, and was awarded the Ph.D. degree by the University of Iowa a year ago.

Miss Cynthia Larry, of Washington State College, is spending her sabbatical leave of absence in Hawaii, doing research in speech correction under the direction of Dr. Florence Henderson, director of speech correction in the public school system of Hawaii. She is also teaching courses in voice, diction, and interpretation in the University of Hawaii.

Valentine B. Windt, of the University of Michigan, spent the summer in Russia, where he attended the 1936 Soviet Union Theatre Festival.

Among the candidates for the Ph.D. degree at the University of Wisconsin this year, in addition to those already noted in this and earlier issues of the QUARTERLY, are Walter B. Emery, of the University of Oklahoma; S. R. Toussaint, of Monmouth College; V. A. Anderson, of Stanford University; N. B. Beck, of the University of Hawaii; Merle Ansberry, of the University of California; Claude Shaver, of Louisiana State University; Ray Holcombe, of the Madison Public Schools; Robert T. Oliver, of Clark Junior College, Vancouver, Washington; Albert Mitchell, Public Schools of Parowan, Utah; Forrest Rose, State Teachers College, Cape Girardeau, Missouri; Mary Cryan, Edgewood High School, Madison; T. Earle Johnson, University of Alabama;

Ainslee Harris, Columbia University, and Rexford S. Mitchell, of Lawrence College.

Melvin Israel, of the University of Alabama staff in Speech, is news and sports announcer over WBRC, motoring the fifty-four miles five nights a week for the broadcast.

T. Earl Pardoe, of Brigham Young University, has completed his doctoral work at Louisiana State University, and has returned to Utah.

Scott, Foresman & Co., are conducting a project which will realize for many teachers something long wished-for, a school dictionary using phonetic symbols (I.P.A.). Following the success of their Thorndyke-Century Dictionary, edited by E. L. Thorndyke, of Columbia University, the publishers plan a series of dictionaries under the same title at various grade-levels. They have employed an Advisory Board with Sir William Craigie, University of Chicago, Head; M. L. Hanley, University of Wisconsin, Pronunciation Editor; and Leonard Bloomfield and Clarence Parmenter, University of Chicago; Louise Pound, University of Nebraska; R. C. Pooley, University of Wisconsin; and C. M. Wise, Louisiana State University; members of the Board.

J. S. Kenyon, Hiram College, and Thomas Knott, University of Michigan, are compiling an *American Pronouncing Dictionary*, with the pronunciations to be interpreted in I.P.A. symbols. Dr. Kenyon is author of *American Pronunciation*, and Dr. Knott has just completed service as Editor of the new Merriam *Webster's International Dictionary*.

Who's Who Among Contributors

W. Norwood Brigance (*Forum*), Wabash College is visiting professor in the University of Hawaii.

Louis Eich (*Forum*) is an associate professor of speech at the University of Michigan. He is in charge of the graduate work of the Department of Speech with special interest in historical studies in the theater. He has been teaching speech since 1912, when he began at Knox College. He has also taught at Ohio State University.

H. Lyle Winter (*Play Production for Phonographic Recording*) is an instructor in the College of the City of New York, Department of Public Speaking, New York City.

Willard Wilson (*Speech Problems in Hawaii*) is a member of the Department of English, University of Hawaii. He has done graduate study in the University of Southern California.

Charles Van Riper (*The Growth of the Stuttering Spasm*) is at present the director of the Speech Clinic at the Western State Teachers College, Kalamazoo, Michigan. He holds the M.A. degree from the University of Michigan and a Ph.D. degree from the University of Iowa. He is a fellow of the American Speech Correction Association and has published extensively in speech correction and psychological journals.

Lloid B. Jones (*Experiments with Speech in the New High School*) is a teacher of public speaking and experimental English at West High School, Denver, Colorado. He is a graduate of the University of Denver, where he has also taught in the speech department during the summer session. His public school experience includes a period in the Pueblo, Colorado, system, and, before his present appointment, the superintendency of District 37 at Holyoke, Colorado.

Holland DeWitte Roberts (*The Director's Part in the Verse-Speaking Choir*) is assistant professor of education at Stanford University and director of English Curriculum, Menlo, California, School and Junior College. He took his Ph.D. and M.A. and did additional graduate work at the University of Chicago, and studied at Columbia University. For many years he has been associated with English and education faculties in high schools and colleges in Illinois, New York, and South Carolina, as well as Columbia University, Indiana University, and Stanford University. Among his writings are *An Outline of American History* and he has contributed to *An Experience Curriculum in English, The English Journal, Secondary Education, Boy's Life,* and many other periodicals.

Almere L. Scott (*Speech Institutes for High School Students*) is Director of the Department of Debating and Public Discussion of the University Extension Division and is Executive Secretary of the Wisconsin High School Forensic Association—an organization of some 400 high schools in the State of Wisconsin. Wisconsin was the first state to organize a state-wide lyceum association

in 1895. Miss Scott was on the committee that promoted the reorganization of that Association in 1925, and as director of the Department of Debating and Public Discussion she has had very close contact with all the speech activities in the State of Wisconsin for more than a quarter of a century.

Arthur L. Bradford (*The Drama in High School Dramatics*) is director of dramatics at Maplewood High School. He was formerly instructor in English at the Missouri School of Mines, and taught at the Univesity of Minnesota. He is a graduate of the University of Missouri, with graduate work at the University of Minnesota. He has contributed to *The High School Clearing House* and to *The English Journal.*

Ernest Bavely (*Practices Concerning High School Play Contests*) has his A.B. from Fairmont State Teachers College and a Master's Degree from West Virginia University. He taught English and public speaking for several years at Weir High School, Weirton, W. Va. He is one of the founders of The National Thespian Society, and has served as its national secretary-treasurer for several years. He is now editor of the society's publication, *The High School Thespian.* He has contributed articles in the field of speech and dramatics to *The Drama Magazine, The West Virginia School Journal, School Activities,* and *The Playbill of Alpha Psi Omega.*

Carney C. Smith (*Sportsmanship in Debating*) is a graduate of Western State Teachers College. He is working toward his M.A. at the University of Michigan. He is a teacher of speech and debate at Northern High School, Flint, Michigan. Last year, his debate team participated in seventy-seven contests with other schools, reaching the state semi-finals. This year, the squad has taken part in 103 contests with other schools, with a winning percentage of .791. According to records that have been available, this is the most extensive interscholastic debating program in the state of Michigan.

Grant Fairbanks (*Some Correlates of Sound Difficulty in Stuttering*) graduated from Redlands in 1931. He has his M.A. from the University of Iowa in 1934 and his Ph.D. in 1936. He is now serving as an associate in speech at the University of Iowa.

O. W. Kolberg (*Conversation*) is a graduate of Jamestown College and has done graduate work for the M.A. at the University of Minnesota. Further graduate work has been pursued at the University of Iowa and Denver University. His articles have appeared in the *English Journal* and the *Elementary School Journal.*

Richard B. Lewis (*The Director's Part in the Verse Speaking Choir*) is director of drama at Glendale Junior College, Glendale, California. He is a graduate of the San Jose State College and of Stanford University.

James H. McBurney (*Some Contributions of Classical Dialectic and Rhetoric to a Philosophy of Discussion*) received his Ph.D. from Michigan in 1935. He was a post-doctoral fellow at Columbia University 1935–36. At present he is an associate professor of speech, School of Speech, Northwestern University.

George E. Carrothers (*The Work of the Standards Study Committee and the High School Curriculum*) is Director of the Bureau of Co-operation with Educational Institutions, and Professor in the School of Education of the University of Michigan. For the past three years Mr. Carrothers has assisted in the organization and work of the national committee on the Co-operative

Study of Secondary School Standards. He is chairman of the general committee.

Joseph Baccus (*Debaters Judge Each Other*) is an assistant professor of speech, University of Redlands, Redlands, California. He graduated from the University of Illinois and has done graduate work at his alma mater and University of Wisconsin. He is co-author of *Modern Debating* and numerous handbooks on debate subjects. He is second vice-president of the California Speech Arts Association and has been a member of the tournament committee of Pi Kappa Delta for several years.

E. W. Scripture (*Systems of Speech*) is without question one of the most widely known experimental phoneticians in the world today. His interest in phonetics began more than forty years ago while he was professor of psychology at Yale University. He had established there the first psychological laboratory in America. Soon after the turn of the century he went to Europe, where he has lived and labored ever since. Most of his work has been done at the University of Vienna. In recent years he has divided his time between Vienna and London.

H. S. Polin (*Laryngo-Stroboscope and Comment upon Dr. West's Reference to Same*) is identified with the H. S. Polin Laboratory of Research in Physics at 405 Lexington Avenue, New York, New York.

Robert T. Oliver (*Slave Struggle Orators*) received his Ph.D. from Wisconsin in January, 1937. A note appeared in connection with his article in the February issue, 1936. He has recently taken up work at Bradley Polytechnic Institute, Peoria, Ill.

Ethel Dyer Hamilton (*A One-Year Speech Course*) teaches at the Urbana High School, Urbana, Illinois. A few years ago Miss Hamilton started with two speech classes and now she has seven classes in speech and two in dramatics. Miss Hamilton has been very active in the Illinois State Association.